THE

History of New Brunswick

AND THE OTHER

MARITIME PROVINCES.

BY

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PREFACE.

THE publication of a connected history of the Maritime Provinces of Canada may appear to some to be a premature undertaking, especially to those who think of Maritime Union as a remote event; yet the unity which pervades the historical account of the colonies around the Gulf of St. Lawrence is sufficient of itself to attract attention, apart from any immediate prospect of political change. Even after Acadia, under the name of Nova Scotia, was broken up into separate provinces, there existed a blending of interests and an association of events, which, to a writer of the present time, form a competent excuse for linking these together in one historical chain ending in Confederation. To draw an outline of such a history, concise yet interesting, has been the aim of the author of this little volume.

A text-book is generally what the *teacher* makes it; yet a text-book on history, without any well defined arrangement, cannot be other than an idle assistant to any teacher. Hence the arrangement into periods and chapters, in this instance, has been carefully marked both for teacher and pupil; so that while the teacher will find it easy to give an *oral lesson* on the book as a whole, the pupil can study from it the history of our country with some degree of pleasure and sympathy. The style is advisedly unequal; the first period being written in simpler language than the second, the second in simpler than the third, to suit the pupils, beginning from the lowest grade in the Advanced or Intermediate Schools. To avoid the necessity for a special set of maps, a list of geographical names has been inserted at the end of the volume, where will also be found a number of Examination Questions, for the guidance of those who use the book in preparing for a written examination.

PRONUNCIATION OF PROPER NAMES.

Abenaquis, *ab-en-ah'-quis.*
Algonquin, *al-gon^{g}-kan^{g}.*
Amerigo, *ah-may-re'-go.*
Beaubassin, *bo-bass-ân^{g}.*
Beausejour, *bo-say-zhoor'.*
Biencourt, *bé-an^{g}-koor.*
Boisherbert, *bwâ-zair'-bair.*
Borgne, *borne.*
Brouage, *broo-ahzh'.*
Brouillan, *broo-eé-yan^{g}.*
Cap-Rouge, *cap-roozh'.*
Champlain, *sham-plane.*
Chauvin, *sho-ván^{g}.*
Chedotel, *shay-to-del'.*
De Chaste, *de-shast'.*
Desbarres, *day-bar'.*
De Loutre, *de-Lootr.*
De Monts, *de-món^{g}.*
Denys, *day'-nee.*
D'Iberville, *dee-bair-veel'.*
Doublet Sieur, *doo-blay^{r} syoor.*
Drucour, *droo-koor^{r}.*
Duchambon, *doo-shan^{g}-bon^{g}.*
Duvivier, *doo-veev'-yay.*
Fontaine, *fon^{g}-tain.*
Gabarus, *gah-bah-roos'.*
Giraudiere, *zhee-ro'-dyair.*
Grand Pré, *gran^{g}-pray.*
Guercheville, *gairsh-veel'.*
Haussonville, *ho-son^{g}-veel'.*
Hochelaga, *ho-she-lah'-gah.*
Jacques Cartier, *zhak-kart'-yay*
Iroquois, *ee-ro-kwaw'.*
Joie, *zhwaw.*
La Fleche, *lah-flaish'.*
Lescarbot, *lay-kar'-bo.*
Loyola, *loi-o'-lah.*
Machias, *ma-chi'-as.*
Malicetes, *mah-le-seets.*
Mascarene, *mas'-kah-reen.*
Menneval, *men'-vall.*
Medici, *may^{s}-dee-chee.*
Miquelon, *mik-ee-lón^{g}.*
Pontgravé, *pon^{g}-grah-vay^{s}.*
Pons, *pon^{g}.*
Poutrincourt, *poo'-tran^{g}-koor.*
Roche, *rosh.*
Rossignol, *roz'-een-yol.*
Saussaye, *so-say'e.*
St. Pierre, *san^{g}-pe-air^{r}.*
Stadaconé, *stah-dah-ko'-nay.*
Subercase, *soo^{s}-ber-kass.*
Tadoussac, *ta-doos-ak^{r}.*
Villebon, *veel'-bon^{g}.*
Verazzani, *ver-adz-ahn'-ee.*
Vespucci, *ves-poot'-chee.*

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THE MARITIME PROVINCES.

INTRODUCTION.

Divisions.	Their Habits.
Origin of Names.	Language.
Native Tribes.	Religion.

BRITISH AMERICA, extending north and south from the Arctic Ocean to the United States, and east and west from the Atlantic to the Pacific, comprises the Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland. The former, consolidated by the Act of Confederation, includes the North-West Territory, British Columbia and Manitoba; Ontario and Quebec; and the Maritime Provinces,—Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island. Each of these provinces has a separate history of its own, but in referring to the age of discovery all may be grouped into one territory, connected by one historical account.

America received its name from Amerigo Vespucci, an astronomer of Italy, who in 1499 explored the Bay of Paria, lying between Trinidad and the mainland. The term, as applied to the New World, seems to have had its origin in Germany. A writer of that country, in publishing a German edition of Amerigo's Travels, proposed to name the newly discovered continent in honour of the Florentine navigator, and, in accordance with this proposition, geographical writers ever afterwards employed the name.

At what time the term *Canada* was first used to distinguish the country north and south of the river Saint Lawrence is uncertain. Derived from an Indian word

signifying a hamlet or settlement, it is supposed to have been unwittingly applied by Cartier to the whole district surrounding the encampment of Indians near Montreal.

Quebec, according to some, was known to the aborigines as *Quebeio* or *Kebec*, meaning a narrow channel. But others say that one of the explorers, on beholding the peculiar rock on which the citadel now stands, exclaimed in admiration *Que becque!* and thus gave the spot its present name, afterwards applied to the whole province in 1867.

Columbia, in common with other places in America of the same name, was so called from Columbus, who discovered America in 1492. Prince Edward Island was named after Edward, Duke of Kent, father of Queen Victoria; New Brunswick, after the House of Brunswick. Ontario and Manitoba are Indian names, the latter meaning the land of Manitou, the Great Spirit. Acadia, the Latin for the French *Acadie*,* was applied by the first settlers to that part of New France, on account of its fertility. Cape Breton received its name from the Basque fishermen.

This vast territory, equal in extent to any other State in the Western Hemisphere, and forming, next to India, the most important of the British Colonies, possesses natural resources unsurpassed by those of any other country in the world. Its lakes, rivers and harbours present great advantages for navigation and commerce; its fisheries and forests are inexhaustible; its minerals are excellent and abundant; while its climate is as salubrious and healthy as its soil is generally rich and fertile. As the discovery of British America is an event of modern occurrence, its history is involved, for the most part, in an account of its earliest settlements by Europeans, their struggles with the aborigines, the wars between colonists of different nationalities, and its ultimate possession by Great Britain; and in tracing the history of the Maritime

*Some derive it incorrectly from *Laquoddie*, a fish found on the coasts.

Provinces in a concise manner, we must confine our studies to these limits.

The original inhabitants of the American continent were Indians, so called by Columbus and others from the mistaken notion that the new country was a portion of India. In the opinion of some, they were the descendants of a branch of the Mongolian race, which had migrated from Asia across Behring's Strait. They were divided into various nations. In British America the most important were the Iroquois, Hurons, and the Algonquins, the Maritime Provinces being inhabited by two branches of the last family, respectively known as the Micmacs and Malicetes. These, with manners somewhat similar, differed in many respects, and spoke a language peculiar to each tribe.

In appearance the Indians were marked by a broad forehead, high cheek-bones, long coarse coal-black hair, deeply set dark eyes, and a reddish or copper skin. The men were tall, erect, and slender; the women, many of them pleasing in figure and countenance, were short and stout. Their senses of sight, hearing, and smell were remarkably acute. Averse to regular mechanical labour, the men spent much of their time in war, in hunting and fishing. They were clad in the skins of animals, rendered soft and pliable by a peculiar process. Their conical shaped dwellings or wigwams, their canoes made from the bark of the birch tree, and of logs hollowed out by fire, their fish-spears, hooks and lines, their war implements, the tomahawk, scalping-knife, bow and arrow, all give evidence of no inconsiderable ingenuity; while some articles of their invention, as moccasins and snow-shoes, are in use at the present time. The art of dyeing in many brilliant colours was known to them, and this, with a taste in basket and ornamental porcupine work, is still to be met with among their descendants. Their only money was "wampum," consisting of strings of shells and trinkets.

Some of their customs were remarkable. Their feast-

parties were the scenes of much gluttony, story-telling and dancing; their councils, the occasion of much public eloquence and diplomatic skill. When one of them made a feast, a messenger was despatched around the wigwams to invite the guests to bring with them their wooden dishes and spoons. The squaws arranged themselves beyond the door of the hut in which the feast was held, while the young men served out the mixture of fish and Indian corn, that had been prepared outside, in a huge vessel, made probably from the stump of a tree. If the master of the feast had been successful in the chase, venison or bear's flesh was added. The floor, which served for a table, being cleared by the women who carried the remains to their own homes, the host, if he had not eaten too much, opened the conversation with an account of his personal exploits. Then followed narratives from the others in order, with more feasting and dancing by the young men.

Their councils were presided over by the Chiefs, surrounded with the Sachems, or chief councillors, all old men who had gained laurels on the war-path. The Chief was elected for life. The design of a new war or expedition, or the ratification of a treaty, generally engaged their attention; if the latter, there was an exchange of wampum belts with those who sued for friendship, and an hour's smoke from the calumet of peace. The other affairs of the tribe were regulated in open parliament of all the warriors.

The marriage knot was tied with little ceremony. When a young Indian longed to leave the parental wigwam and raise one for himself, his relations usually selected for him a helpmate among the squaws of his own tribe. Presenting himself at the hut of his parents' choice, he attracted her attention by throwing into her lap a piece of wood, which, if accepted, was the token of their union as man and wife. In some tribes the youth was forced to pursue his sweetheart around the settlement in sight of all, before claiming her as his bride; the maiden

who cared not for her suitor had always an opportunity to escape. The squaw's experience, after marriage, was a continuous life of drudgery and subordination to her lazy lord's will.

With passions unsubdued by civilization, the Indians showed no mercy to their enemies. The early immigrants in the country, when they fell into their hands, suffered terribly. Their property was often destroyed, their lives endangered, while the skulking savages escaped punishment by retiring to their dens in the forest, where they could recruit themselves for a fresh attack. In many cases, however, the natives showed much kindness to the European settlers, especially to those who bribed them with ornaments and provisions, or assisted them in assailing a neighbouring hostile tribe.

Their language, now reduced to a written alphabet, is complex in structure, musical and refined in sound. A few books, chiefly evangelical, have been printed for the use of their descendants. The characters employed are Roman. That a written language existed at one time among them is inferred from their supposed consanguinity to the semi-civilized Indians of Mexico and Peru, who had a literature of their own; but this is altogether uncertain.

The religion of the British American Indians was a combination of superstitious forms and observances. Their heaven, a spiritual hunting-ground, was an abode of eternal, sensuous bliss, probably akin in theory to the Valhalla of the ancient Saxons. Their belief in the anger of an over-ruling Manitou filled them with all manner of superstitious fears, surrounding them with the imaginative forms of goblins, ghosts and forest deities. Their reverence for the dead was a part of their religion, while the selection of a burial-ground and the interment of the bodies of their chiefs were the occasion of prolonged ceremonies. They did everything by omen; and to propitiate the great Spirit, who held in his hand the destiny of war, they were always ready to sacrifice a dog, a wolf,

or some animal of the forest. When the country was colonized, these savage tribes, with few exceptions, readily became converts to the Roman Catholic faith, ever afterwards showing the greatest attachment to the French, by whom they had been taught the rudiments of civilization and Christianity.

A number of the descendants of the native Indians, mostly half-castes, are yet to be found lingering around the towns and villages of our country. But these, in many cases indolent and intemperate, must not be taken as specimens of the ancient red man of the forest. The old characteristics of the race, as their numbers, are fast disappearing.

THE FIRST PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

ERIC, THE RED.

The Northmen.
Eric's crime and banishment.
Iceland.
Discovery of Greenland.
Lief's Expedition.
Thorwald.
Thorstein.
Vinland and Thorfinne.

THE early history of our country in its discovery, like that of others, is shrouded in a mist of tradition. Several manuscripts, found in Iceland, and giving an account of various Norwegian voyages in the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans, support the belief that America was known to the Northmen five hundred years before Columbus set out on his expedition to the westward. The character of these bold, hardy Scandinavians, and that of the navigators of a later period, form a striking contrast, without detracting the one from the other any of that nobility of courage, which led them on, through dangers and anxieties, to discover other lands. The noble spirit of adventure was equal in both, though the advantages of experience and science stood in favour of the latter. With no nautical almanac save the heavens above them, and skilled only in the seamanship required to navigate the seas, and bays, and coasts of northern Europe, these intrepid sailors of Norway courageously turned their faces to the broad ocean, crossed its mighty waves, and explored a continent unknown to Europeans; and this they did in cockle shells of boats, propelled for the greater part of the way with oars, in vessels which no sailors of the present time would venture to conduct through the stormy seas or amid the mountain icebergs of the North Atlantic.

While the nations bordering on the Mediterranean were growing rich, giving themselves up to a life of luxury and ease, the Northern tribes of Europe were eking out a

scanty livelihood from the fisheries and the produce of their comparatively barren soil. This contrast in the manner of living could not, in the nature of human progress, exist long among neighbouring races. The Northmen, desiring a share of the wealth of the South, turned their experience as sailors and fishermen to account, and became pirates.

One of these pirates or sea-kings was Eric the Red, who, after amassing considerable wealth, attained to some distinction in his native country, Norway. His influence and wealth, however, did not save him from subsequent disgrace and punishment, for on being found guilty of an outrageous murder, committed for a purpose repugnant even to his neighbours, whose only morality was a rude form of chivalry, he was heavily fined, and banished from the land. This took place in the beginning of the tenth century.

Eric, thus driven from his home, embarked his family and movable property in three ships, and set out for Iceland,—an island well known at this time to the Northmen, having been discovered by Gardar, a Swedish navigator, in 853, and colonized by Ingolf, a Norwegian, eleven years afterwards. Here he found a rude republic in existence, and a hardy, industrious people, labouring to develop the rugged resources which Providence had granted to them. But this was not the place in which a man of Eric's self-will and cruel nature could flourish, for, after giving continued annoyance to the inhabitants and authorities of the island, he was outlawed a second time, and forced to flee for safety to some less civilized shore.

Again the old viking set sail toward the west. The fishermen of Iceland, in their long voyages, had seen the high, snow-bound mountains of a country near the setting sun, and this knowledge was Eric's only chart, guiding him to the land which he named Greenland, and which he colonized with emigrants from the island that had banished him. There, for many years, he ruled as a king; there he died.

Eric had three sons, named in turn, Lief, Thorwald, and Thorstein. Chiefly by their industry and example, the colony of Greenland prospered; but in them the bold restlessness of their father appeared in an oft-repeated desire to set out on some daring expedition. Lief, on returning from Norway, where he had been converted to Christianity, and whence he brought out a number of missionaries, learned that during a voyage to Greenland, an Icelander, named Biorne, had been driven westward by adverse winds, and had there seen the shores of other lands, very different in natural features from those around Cape Farewell. He at once set out to verify Biorne's statement.

Sailing toward the south-west, he soon descried the land mentioned by Biorne, and there disembarked with several of his crew, intending to investigate the character of the country thoroughly. But the periodic fogs, the scarcity of vegetation, and the sharp, biting blasts which blew among the numerous icebergs clinging to the shores, cooled the navigator's zeal, and sent him back to his ship, from the deck of which he named the country *Helluland*,—the land of naked rocks. This was evidently Newfoundland.

Still intent on discovery, Lief sailed further south, and in a few days reached another land, flat in surface, sandy in soil, and covered with forests. This, which was probably Nova Scotia, he named *Markland*.

Further in the same direction, he cast anchor off an island lying some distance from the mainland. With this discovery he was more satisfied than with the others, for here he found the days and nights nearly equal, the climate mild and genial, and dew upon the grass which tasted sweet like honey. Thence he proceeded across a tract of water, and arrived at a country intersected with rivers and numerous streams, where fodder for cattle was abundant, and the winter comparatively mild. Here he remained for many months to explore the interior, finding grapes and wild maize for a plentiful cargo

on his return. He called the country *Vinland*, now Massachusetts, where both wild grapes and maize covered a large part of the country when it was first colonized by the Puritan fathers.

On Lief's return to Greenland, Thorwald, the second son of Eric, set out in the same ship and arrived in safety at Vinland, where stood the huts which his brother had erected. In one of his expeditions towards the country lying north of Vinland, he and his companions were attacked by the aborigines, and, during the contest, Thorwald was killed. His followers, burying him near Lief's huts, returned to Greenland.

Thorstein, the third son, then sailed with his wife and a number of colonists, thinking to settle permanently in the country of Vinland. There he died. His widow, on her return to Greenland, married a man named Thorfinne, and induced him to settle in the land discovered by her brothers. Thorfinne wisely followed her advice and became rich and prosperous.

Other voyages took place after this, for we are told that Eric, Bishop of Greenland, departed for Vinland in 1121, for the purpose of converting his countrymen who had fallen away from the Christian faith.

CHAPTER II.

COLUMBUS, CABOT, AND CARTIER.

Columbus and the Monk.
Isabella's courage.
Sight of Land.
The first fort.
Cabot's voyage.
Cartier's three voyages.

ONE day, in the year 1485, a Genoese traveller, dust-stained, dejected and hungry, halted before the gate of a Spanish convent to beg a morsel of bread for himself and the child that accompanied him. The superior of the convent, passing at the moment, was struck with the intellectual appearance of the man, and, after inviting him to enter, was so much pleased with his conversational powers that he requested him to remain at the convent for a few days. The traveller, whose name was Christopher Columbus, gave the monk a hurried account of his past history, stating that he was a designer of maps and globes, and that, after giving close attention to the study of geography and navigation, he had determined to test the writings of Marco Polo, and those half legendary tales, connected with the discoveries of the Northmen. In his enthusiasm, the poor wanderer verily believed that Heaven had commissioned him to plant the cross on undiscovered shores, far beyond Europe on the other side of the ocean. Though he had failed in obtaining the patronage of the King of Portugal, or Henry VII. of England, he was still sanguine that his design to find a western route to India would end in success.

Moved by the grandeur of his views, the superior provided him with food and money, gave him his blessing, and promised to use his influence at the court of Spain in favour of his plans. But, notwithstanding the good man's promise, it was not till the year 1492—a remarkable date in the world's history—that the poor map-drawer was enabled to set sail from Palos, on his first voyage of discovery.

Columbus found the means for navigating the Atlantic through the liberality of Isabella, Spain's noblest Queen, who devoted a portion of her private revenue in behalf of his project. The navigator, in return, promised to spend the treasures he expected to find, in delivering the Holy Sepulchre from the Saracens, and to convert to Christianity the Great Khan of Tartary—a monarch for whom he actually carried letters of credit. Thus, with bright hopes, Christopher Columbus set sail on his marvellous voyage, with one hundred and twenty men huddled on board his two small vessels.

On leaving Spain, he sailed for the Canaries, where he remained a month, repairing his ships and waiting for favourable weather. On the ninth of September, he and his companions lost sight of the last speck of European land and steered boldly to the westward. For three weeks, they saw nothing but the wide expanse of ocean. Then the sailors began to murmur; for, accustomed as they were to short voyages only, they believed themselves to be the followers of a mad-cap on a fool's errand. At length, their timidity and murmurs ended in open remonstrance and mutiny. But nothing could turn aside the brave navigator from his purpose. He quieted their fears for some days longer, and, when a month had passed, the appearance of land-birds, sea-weed, and floating twigs restored peace and order among the crew. On the 12th of October, 1492, the island of San Salvador was discovered and named, when possession of the new country was taken with much religious ceremony amid the jubilant shouts of the sailors and the calm joy of the discoverer.

Columbus supposed he had now arrived at the eastern extremity of India. Intending to visit Marco Polo's island of Japan, he made many voyages around the West Indian Islands. One of his vessels was wrecked on the coast of Hispaniola, and there, on account of the barbarous conduct of his crew towards the native women, he was obliged to fortify a small piece of ground to defend the

whole company from the attacks of those who were at first friendly. This was the first fortress built by Europeans in America.

In March, 1493, Columbus returned to Spain, and was received with every demonstration of joy. Tidings of his discovery soon spread over all Europe and induced other navigators to sail in search of this new country. He made three other voyages to America.

The Cabots.—The success of Columbus fostered the belief that there existed a north-west passage to India and China. John Cabot, a Venetian, who, with other merchants of southern Europe, had been attracted to England on account of its growing commerce during the fifteenth century, had little difficulty in obtaining a commission from Henry VII. to explore a route so much discussed. This commission gave Cabot the command of a squadron of five ships, victualled at the public expense and exempt from duties, while it reserved to the king the sovereignty of all lands discovered, and a fifth of the profits arising from the expedition.

In the beginning of May, 1497, Cabot, accompanied by his three sons, Ludovic, Sebastian, and Sanzio, sailed from Bristol with cargoes of coarse cloths, rough articles of ornament, and other goods for traffic with the natives. Their associates numbered three hundred men. After a passage of six weeks, nearly twelve months before Columbus, in his second voyage, touched any part of the mainland of America, these brave sailors came in sight of the coast of Labrador, which, being the first land seen, they named *Prima Vista*. They also discovered an inhabited island lying opposite, from which they kidnapped three natives. This—probably Newfoundland or Prince Edward Island—they named St. John.

After penetrating to Hudson Bay, and exploring some of the shores of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, they sailed as far south as Florida, and would have visited some of the adjacent islands, but a scarcity of provisions and a mutiny among the crew hurried them home. They arrived in

Bristol in the month of August of the same year. The father was knighted.

Sebastian Cabot, assisted by the Spanish monarch, made several voyages to America, but these belong to the history of other countries.

Jacques Cartier.—Various voyages were made to the American continent by Europeans on the return of John Cabot, but up to the date of Cartier's first voyage, none were important. Cortereal, a Portuguese, captured fifty Indians on Newfoundland, and sold them in the European slave market. Denys, a Frenchman, explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Baron de Lery failed in an attempt to colonize Sable Island, and at last, Verrazani was commissioned by Francis I. to explore the whole of the eastern coast of the new continent. This navigator disappeared suddenly on his third voyage. Nothing more was done for nine years, until the French sovereign, in imitation of the Spaniards, determined to send out a colony of his subjects to the northern part of the country, and appointed Jacques Cartier, a sailor of St. Malo, to carry out his design.

In the spring of 1534, Cartier left Brittany with two ships, and arrived off the coast of Newfoundland in twenty days. Passing to the north of that island, he sailed through the Straits of Belleisle and navigated the north-west portion of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. At Gaspé, he took possession of the country in the name of the King of France, and marked the event by constructing a rude wooden cross and hanging on it a shield bearing the national emblem of France. After capturing two natives, he returned to France.

Cartier's first voyage led to a second. The Indians whom he had taken to France, informed him of a large river leading from the great Gulf, the source of which was unknown. Anxious to trace this wonderful channel, a supposed route to India, he set sail a second time in May, 1535. Nearly two months passed before he reached Newfoundland, and there he remained another month,

waiting for the arrival of two of his ships. He then steered north of Anticosti, and anchored at the mouth of the Saguenay. On the Isle of Orleans, — named by Cartier, the Isle of Bacchus, on account of its grapes — was first beheld a native encampment. The Indians crowded round the ships in their light canoes, chattering in their strange tongue, and putting endless questions to their two countrymen, now esteemed the wisest of their tribe. Cartier entertained them hospitably, and won the heart of the great chief, Donnacona, by a plentiful repast of bread and wine, giving his sailors liberty to barter beads, knives, and hatchets for the fish and fruit of their tawny friends. Thence the explorer sailed to Quebec, where he found an Indian village, named Stadaconé, and further up the river, he discovered another, called Hochelaga, — the former the capital of the Algonquin tribe, the latter inhabited by Hurons. At Hochelaga, Cartier was again courteously entertained by the natives. He found the place strongly fortified, and, after ascending the hill behind the encampment and viewing the extent of forest and river for miles around, he gave it the name Mount Royal. Hence the more modern term Montreal. On his return, Cartier wintered at Quebec, fortifying a small enclosure against the possible attacks of his amiable, though treacherous neighbours. In the following summer, having lost many of his men from scurvy and cold, he seized the Indian chief with four of his subjects, again weighed anchor, and arrived in France, July, 1536. His captives died shortly after their arrival at St. Malo, but not before they had become Christians in name.

Cartier, in his third voyage, was associated with the French nobleman, Roberval, who had received a royal commission to establish himself as viceroy in Canada. The former, preceding his superior, visited his old friends the Indians at Quebec, and among them remained the winter of 1541. But, probably disappointed at the delay of the other ships, he suddenly set out for France in the spring, and avoiding the new governor, whom he found

in the harbour of St. John's, Newfoundland, and by whom he was commanded to return, reached St. Malo in safety. There he died, lamented by his countrymen and sovereign, from whom he received, before his death, great honours for his greater services. The last scenes of the old pioneer's life were worthy the name, now honoured by all as that of a hero who stands out prominently in the world's history—the discoverer and explorer of a great country.

CHAPTER III.

ROBERVAL, GILBERT, AND LA ROCHE.

Roberval's Niece.
Famine and Failure.
Newfoundland.
The Squirrel lost.
Sable Island.
Pontgrave and Chauvin.

Roberval, though deserted by his lieutenant, Cartier, continued his course towards Quebec. In passing the island of Anticosti, an event took place, which, with the superstitious of the company, augured ill. Among the band of colonists there were men, women, and children of all ranks and classes. The niece of the viceroy, a fair young lady of noble birth, had accompanied her uncle in his ship, but, during the voyage, had committed a very grievous offence against the pride and dignity of her family. Roberval's anger and resentment were roused. When opposite the bleak, barren shores of this island, then uninhabited, he gave orders that she and her nurse, who was partly involved in her guilt, should be borne ashore and there left to their fate. The cruel sentence was only too promptly carried out, and the ships sailed away just as the maid's lover, wild with excitement, joined her by swimming ashore. The sufferings they endured were terrible. Their provisions were soon consumed, while their superstitious fears filled the island with demons and all manner of horrid monsters. Death at length left the pale, haggard, famishing Marguerite alone and unprotected, and there she remained alive, struggling against evil spirits and starvation, until rescued by the crew of a small fishing-boat. Two years and a half after her banishment, she reached France to tell her terrible story.

Gloomy and vexed, Roberval sailed onward up the great river, and, at last, anchored in the safe harbour of Cap-Rouge. There he found the ruins of Cartier's camp. In a short time, every one was at work, hurriedly raising

a huge building for the accommodation of all. In the industry of the colonists, there was the essence of success; cheerfulness in their every movement. A fine prospect of founding a great nation was before them. But one day, a murmur was heard, speeding through the camp, that the provisions were failing, and then the long, wistful gaze of three hundred souls hourly swept the horizon of the broad Gulf. Still no vessels, laden with the produce of France, came. The murmurs grew louder and louder, not to be suppressed by the most rigorous discipline, or the angry scowl of the viceroy. Starvation brought disease; and disease, crime. Roberval became powerless to pacify or subdue his subjects, and, after a vain attempt to explore the Saguenay, he returned to France, there to forget his misfortunes in the army of his sovereign, who was then resisting the ambition of Charles V. At the close of the war, he and his brother, on their way to Canada, then called New France, perished in a storm at sea.

For fifty years no new expedition for America left the shores of old France, then filled with civil war and strife. What had been done, however, was by no means labour lost. The fishermen and fur-traders of western Europe, untrammelled by tax or government, now grew rich with the spoils, drawn from sea and forest. During the season of 1578, the increasing trade brought four hundred vessels crowding into the bays and harbours of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and the Gulf.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert.—The attention of England was again directed to the land discovered by Cabot, hers by right of prior possession. Queen Elizabeth in 1579 commissioned Sir Walter Raleigh and his brother-in-law, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, to colonize the island of Newfoundland, raising the latter to the dignity of viceroy, and reserving for herself one-fifth of all precious metals discovered. The expedition had a poor beginning. Disasters at sea, either from the mutiny of the sailors, or from the active hostility of a Spanish squadron, sent them

back to port, with the loss of one vessel and its captain. Then Raleigh, the leading spirit in the enterprise, fell sick; and Sir Humphrey was obliged to set out alone with his four small vessels, crowded to the gunwale with a motley group of artisans and adventurers. The names of the vessels, according to their size, were the Delight, Golden Hind, Swallow, and Squirrel, the largest one hundred and twenty tons, the smallest but ten.

The Delight, with the viceroy on board, approached the harbour of St. John's on the 30th of July. The island looked its best. Its rugged scenery, bedecked with green, truly earned for it the name, which Cartier gave to one of its capes—Bonavista. Then followed the Swallow, filled with pirates and dissension, and enriched with the property of the crew of a poor French vessel which she had met outside. To punish the offenders was the governor's first judicial act.

In the harbour, at this time, there were thirty-six ships of various nations, and Sir Humphrey, deeming the occasion suitable, at once proclaimed his authority by taking formal possession of the island, and by exacting the allegiance of the traders. The foolish ceremony of presenting wood and water, enforced by the viceroy, was performed by the fishermen and merchants present. The English laws of church and state became the constitution of the new colony, while a special code of regulations, affecting the fisheries and the fur-trade, were at once established. In framing these, the gallantry of the viceregal knight did not forsake him: those who dared to speak disrespectfully of Her Majesty were, according to one of his enactments, to be punished by losing their ears. This empty exhibition of English authority brought little prosperity to the colony. The country was not the fertile garden many expected to find. It was beautiful to the eye, but unfit for the plough without hard labour. Numbers of the colonists deserted, robbing the fishermen of their boats and other property. Disease appeared, and the sick had to be sent home in the Swallow. At last,

the governor, while exploring the coasts in the little Squirrel, heard of the loss of the Delight near Cape Race, and this news, adding to his despair of success, caused him to return to St. John's to prepare for his voyage homewards.

He set sail in the Squirrel, accompanied by the Golden Hind, but, near the Azores, a storm overtook them, and the Squirrel, with its crew and brave commander, perished in the waves of the Atlantic. The shattered Golden Hind soon after arrived in England to repeat the sad story of a noble heart lost.

Marquis de la Roche.—The French, after fifty years inaction, again appeared on the scene. The merchants of St. Malo continued to hold a monopoly of the trade between Old and New France from the date of Cartier's last voyage, and loud were their cries when any attempt was made to deprive them of the enriching privilege. Even the grant given by the king to Cartier's nephews was annulled in their favour. At length, La Roche, a wealthy Breton, accepted a commission appointing him ruler of New France, and immediately set out to organize his realm. His power was to be absolute. He was to make laws and repeal them at pleasure, to raise armies and disband them, to create nobles and hang them. At best, he was a ruler with a very large kingdom but very few people, and these but the scum of society impressed into his service.

Sable Island was his own and his company's fate. Thinking to rid himself of the most restless of his subjects before exploring the mainland, he here disembarked forty of them, expecting to return when he had selected the site for his capital. For them he never returned. In skirting the coasts of Nova Scotia, a western gale fell upon his ship and drove him back to France, there to hear of the success of his enemies who had induced the king to withdraw his commission. For years he lay in prison, brooding over the evil he had brought on his followers, but powerless to help them in their exile.

Meanwhile, the forty wretched, famishing creatures whom he had left behind, wandered over the bare sand-hills of Sable Island, picking up whatever might assist them in enduring the severity of an almost Arctic winter. They erected some huts with the driftwood of shipwrecks thrown upon the shore. On the island there were a few herds of cattle which had been left by De Lery, and these, with various kinds of wild berries and what fish they could catch in the little bays, afforded them their sole nourishment. Foxes and seals supplied them with warm clothing, while the surplus of skins they collected were laid up in store for the day of their return to France. That day came, but not for five years; and then famine, disease and murder had left but twelve persons to return.

La Roche, when permitted to see the king, told all. In haste a pilot, named Chedotel, was sent out to rescue the exiles, who, as soon as they saw the welcome sail, were willing to barter their whole stock of valuable furs for a passage to their native land. Chedotel was not slow to take advantage of their ignorance. On their return they were presented at court as beings delivered from the grave. The king's compassion was excited; on being told of Chedotel's dishonesty, he caused him to give up his ill-gotten gain, and thus placed the poor men in a position to start as traders. La Roche died soon after.

The fate of this expedition did not deter others from attempting, in a small way, the colonization of the western world. In 1599 Pontgravé and Chauvin, the one a trader of St. Malo, the other a sailor of Rouen, sailed for Tadoussac with a number of colonists, hoping to enrich themselves from the fur-trade; but their plans, like those of better men, ended only in disaster, preparing the way, moreover, for the great enterprise with which the names of Champlain and De Monts were to be proudly associated.

CHAPTER IV.

DE MONTS AND POUTRINCOURT.

De Chaste.
De Mont's Voyage.
Father Aubrey.
St. Croix.
Cape Cod.
Port Royal's origin.
Lescarbot.
Indian Converts.
Biencourt's Mission.
Port Royal destroyed.

HENRY of Navarre became King of France in 1593. For many years previous to his accession to the throne, that country had been a house divided against itself—a prey to political factions and civil bickerings; and as such, had given as little attention to the encouragement of manufactures and commerce generally as to the development of a land which, though prolific of wealth to the trader in fish and fur, seemed to frown on every scheme for its colonization. At Henry's court, however, were two men whom the disasters of former expeditions to New France did not discourage. One of these, a captain in the royal navy, had made two voyages to America, one with Pontgravé to the St. Lawrence, another to the West Indies. His name was Samuel de Champlain. The other was Sieur de Monts, Governor of Pons, the king's intimate friend, and one in every respect worthy the royal patronage. To these two men British America owes her first permanent settlement.

After Chauvin's thrice repeated failure at Tadoussac, the old Governor of Dieppe, De Chaste, proceeded to organize a company at his own expense, under a patent granted by his royal master, and having for its object the founding of a colony in Canada. The command of De Chaste's first expedition was entrusted to the young and daring Champlain, with Pontgravé as his lieutenant; and, though nothing was done beyond the exploration of the St. Lawrence as far as the rapids of the Sault St. Louis, the voyage opened the way for its commander's

future colony at Quebec. De Chaste died in France during Champlain's absence, surrendering his place in the enterprise to a younger man, in the person of De Monts, who had already visited Canada in one of Chauvin's ships.

A new charter was written out for De Monts, which granted him vice-regal authority over all lands extending from the St. Lawrence to the Hudson, and included under the new name, Acadia. The rigour of a winter at Tadoussac led him to think of placing his colony further south than the Gulf; and hence his caution in obtaining an extended patent from King Henry. His other privileges were not unlike those of the unfortunate La Roche.

In April, 1604, the first vessel sailed from Havre. On board there was the usual mixed company of jail-birds, artizans, priests and courtiers, drawn from city and country, faubourg and palace; now numbering among them Poutrincourt, a French Baron, Champlain, the hero of many voyages, and De Monts himself, the newly appointed Governor of Acadia. In a month they passed Cape La Have on the south coast of Nova Scotia. Four days later they entered the bay, now known as Liverpool Harbour. Here they found the ship of the fur-trader, Rossignol, seized his valuable cargo as theirs by right of royal patent, and gave the place his name in honour of the event. Then they cast anchor in Port Mouton, where one of the few sheep on deck fell overboard; and here they awaited the arrival of Pontgravé, who had sailed from France with supplies but a few days after them. A month passed before Pontgravé came. He had gone to Canso, there to act toward several traders as De Monts had acted towards Rossignol. Besides the stores, he brought with him a rich cargo of furs captured from four unlucky merchants.

Pontgravé delivered his freight, and immediately started for Tadoussac; while De Monts, rounding the extremity of the peninsula, anchored in St. Mary's Bay. The boats were sent out to examine the shores. In one

went Father Aubrey, one of the few who had joined the expedition out of curiosity, and much against the wish of his friends. With his party he wandered some distance from the beach, and on leaving them to return to a spring, where while stooping to drink he had left his sword, the good priest lost his way in the forest. The more he tried to find a path the further he got from the ship, until he was far beyond the reach of his comrades' shouts, the noise of their trumpets, or even the boom of the guns fired from the bay. He was given up for lost, not without the suspicion that he had been murdered by a Protestant with whom he had quarrelled about religion. Leaving him to his fate, the ship sailed up the Bay of Fundy to Digby channel.

On entering, the beautiful basin of Annapolis spread out before the astonished gaze of the strangers. At the head of the bay, the eye of the watchful Poutrincourt fell upon the slope on which the town of Annapolis now stands, and readily receiving a grant of the spot from his comm nder, he named it Port Royal. But De Monts, anxious to find the most favourable place within easy reach, passed again to the open waters of the Bay of Fundy,—called by him La Baie Francoise,—and steered for the coast opposite. Reaching the mouth of the Ounegondy on the day of St. John's festival, he gave the river its new name, St. John; and as soon as Champlain had made his map of the harbour, the expedition sailed in the direction of Passamaquoddy Bay. On an island at the mouth of the St. Croix, the river with the cross, he fixed the site of his first resting place, probably in such choice forgetting the severity of a North American winter in his enjoyment of an Acadian summer.

Labour now began in earnest. The bounds of the new settlement were first laid out in order, marked in the centre by a large square of cleared ground; then the positions for the various buildings were allotted, and the men separated into gangs for the work connected with each erection. On the mainland there was plenty of

lumber for their purpose, and the round rocks on the beach served for a foundation. Champlain, whose strange drawings still amuse the antiquary, was, of course, the architect of the colony, while De Monts, active on shore as on ship, encouraged no delay. Soon the northern point of the island assumed the appearance of a thriving village. De Monts' house, with its large French roof, stood on the east side of the square, and rose above the other buildings—the first Government House of Acadia. Champlain had his residence opposite, with its little garden in front; and extending from the one to the other, all around the square, were storehouses, workshops and barracks. The whole was enclosed by a rough fortification protected by a few pieces of ordnance, and the sacred cross which extended its rude arms over the little chapel standing outside in the centre of a small cemetery.

One day, as the work progressed, there arose great excitement in the hamlet; the axe, the hammer, and the saw were thrown aside for the moment in a general rush towards the landing-place, where stood the frail, famished form of Father Aubrey, the worthy priest, whom all believed to have been lost in the woods of St. Mary's Bay. He had been brought across by a pilot sent back by De Monts to bring specimens of the mineral ore which some had seen cropping out on the shore of that inlet. Found on the beach, waving his hat feebly at the end of a stick, he was taken on board the pilot's boat, as much astonished at his miraculous escape as were his friends to see him alive. His tale of miseries endured made him the hero of the day.

Before the winter set in, Poutrincourt sailed for France, there intending to make preparations for his proposed settlement at Annapolis.

The frost and snow of an Acadian December brought with it many troubles to the colony. The large blocks of ice formed at the mouth of the river cut off their supplies of wood and water from the mainland. There was no

spring on the island, and only a few cedars,—a serious matter to men living on salt meat, and struggling against the intense cold of their first winter in America. The scurvy appeared; and before the warm sun of April came, the little cemetery had in it thirty-five graves.

In the following June, Pontgravé brought additional stores from France, with forty new settlers; and De Monts, leaving his capital in good cheer, set forth in search of a better site. He sailed along the coast to Cape Cod, in company with Champlain, who had been there before. Here they came in collision with the natives. A kettle had been stolen from a sailor, while on shore with others on the look-out for fresh water. An Indian was the thief, and him the sailor pursued until they came within the range of the arrows of the tribe. De Monts, to save his follower, who had fallen pierced in several places, fired upon the enemy, and drove them from deck and shore to the woods. The explorers took one prisoner, but let him go when a scarcity of provisions drove them back to the St. Croix.

There was now no hope for the colony unless by removing to Port Royal. The busy scene of the former summer was changed to one of demolition. Everything, even some portions of the buildings, were carried on board, for transportation across the bay; and years afterwards, all that could be found of this, the first European settlement in New Brunswick, were the bones of those who had succumbed to the scurvy and cold.

From Port Royal, De Monts returned to France, where he heard his enemies were defaming him and his efforts. Champlain and Pontgravé remained behind, sad but courageous, and little dreaming that their brave comrade and governor would look his last on Acadia when his ship had passed beyond Cape Sable. But so it was. So critical did he find affairs at home, and so crushing the evil reports which had been spread during his absence, that with great difficulty he procured the services of one ship to carry the provisions necessary to save the colonists

at Port Royal from starvation. Nor was he able to accompany the ship when all was ready. The chief command he was obliged to give to Poutrincourt.

Along with Poutrincourt went Marc Lescarbot, a gentleman to whom the colonists owed much, alike for the cheerful energy he displayed among them, and the encouraging accounts he sent to France in his letters concerning the enterprise. He had been an advocate in Paris, but longing for excitement, had united his fortunes with those of De Monts and Poutrincourt in their attempts to extend the French dominions beyond the Atlantic. At one time, during the absence of the other leaders, he had full control of affairs at the fort, and soon, through his industry and tact, the settlement around assumed a prosperous look. Houses were built, land cleared and prepared for its first crop of wheat, gardens enclosed, a magazine and store-house erected, and even a water-mill for grinding corn was raised on an adjoining brook. The trials of the St. Croix were forgotten by the settlers, who here lived together like one large family, each with his proper share of work, but all labouring for one common interest; and this with nothing to fear from the natives, whose friendship had been won by the sagacious Lescarbot through his presents of corn and wine to old Membertou, the chief of the tribe. Lescarbot was legislator, poet, and historian in one; and truly his records of receptions, amusements, hunting-parties, festivities, and explorations, throw a halo of interest around this period of Acadian history, and show how he and his associates resisted the rigours of the climate, and bore up against the hardships of their new life. His harmless gossip and quaint humour make up a pleasant tale.

In the spring, just as the colonists, hopeful of the coming harvest, were busy digging and planting and sowing, the news arrived that the commission of De Monts had been cancelled. This sad intelligence broke up the little community, and sent the two leaders to Canso, there to find a ship sailing to France. In company with Champlain and Pontgravé, they landed at St. Malo in October,

Poutrincourt now used all his influence at the court to have his grant, which only bore the signature of De Monts, confirmed by royalty, for he was still anxious to see his colony prosper. De Monts, on the verge of ruin in purse and spirit, could give him no help; but never wavering for three years, the diligent Baron at last received the favour of the king, with the understanding that Father Biard, a Jesuit, should join him at Bordeaux, for the purpose of superintending the spiritual interests of the settlers and the conversion of the Indians. Poutrincourt sailed from Dieppe early in February, 1610. Instead of the Jesuit, he took Father La Fleche, a Parisian priest, by whom, as soon as they arrived, the work of conversion began. Membertou was the first to submit to the rites of the church. Then followed his squaws and his numerous progeny, succeeded in turn by his subjects settled near the camp, and hundreds of others brought in from the surrounding forest. The old chief was a faithful ally to the priest. Both laboured incessantly until a long list of converts was ready to be sent home as an evidence of their industry, and the good faith of their master in carrying out the injunction of his sovereign. This list was entrusted to the care of young Biencourt, the son of Poutrincourt, who lost no time in carrying the good news to Paris.

From the fishermen at Canso, Biencourt heard of the assassination of King Henry; but this information did not hinder him from returning to France with all speed to support his father's interests at the new court. He was immediately presented to the queen. His register of Indian baptisms told its own tale. Then he learned that no favour would be granted unless the Jesuits were suffered to share in the work of Father La Fleche. Here was a difficulty for the young ambassador. The merchants of Dieppe, who had promised to provision his ship at their own risk, refused to have anything to do with an enterprise in which the religious order took part. To please the court was to lose four thousand livres, and the

favour of the court and the money were both indispensable Madame de Guercheville came to the rescue. By the munificence of this pious lady, Biencourt was empowered to set aside the offer of the traders, and induced to take two members of the zealous brotherhood with him to Acadia.

Poutrincourt was displeased at this arrangement, and coldly received the priests. Then, leaving his son governor, he sailed for France, only to hear that Madame de Guercheville had sent out another ship filled with emigrants and under the command of De Saussaye. This colony was established at Mount Desert. Its subsequent destruction by the adventurers who had left England for Virginia, led to the first siege of Acadia's first settlement.

The story of Port Royal's overthrow is short. The English, who had settled at Jamestown, believed that the signature of their king had given them the sway of all the territory on the east coast of America. Acadia, they said, belonged to the English, and the French must be driven out of it. Captain Argall, who had already destroyed the colony of Mount Desert, and had captured the ship of De Saussaye, was the man chosen for the work, and mercilessly did he carry out his commission. The doomed fort offered little resistance. Biencourt and many of his men were absent on a hunting excursion. Argall raised the English flag, and then ordered the demolition of everything to be seen. The cattle were slaughtered, the buildings plundered and burned, the crops destroyed, and the inhabitants taken prisoners or driven into the woods. The thriving village was reduced to ashes,—a monument of cruelty and misguided patriotism,—a heartless act towards the man who had spent his fortune and his years in laying its foundation. Sad was the heart of Poutrincourt when, in the following spring, he came out to view the work of his enemies, and to find his son a fugitive in the forest; and hopelessly did he return to France, where, in 1615, he fell in the cause of his king and country.

CHAPTER V.

DE LATOUR—FATHER AND SON.

Sir William Alexander.	Charnise, sole ruler.
The Father in England.	La Borgne.
Father and son enemies.	Nicholas Denys.
Razilly and Charnise.	Cromwell.
Madame De Latour.	Sir Thomas Temple.

THE fate of Port Royal, a crushing event to its pioneers, was but a blessing in disguise for Acadia, in as far as it directed the spirit of English adventure to its shores, and led the King of England to bestow upon Sir William Alexander the whole country, under the new name of Nova Scotia. The French were now scattered over the more fertile spots of the peninsula in small companies,—each the nucleus of a future town or village; while ships from Europe seldom arrived without their consignment of passengers, the poor intent on grasping some of the wealth hidden in the forests and bays, and the rich longing to earn the empty honour of a Nova Scotian Baronetcy.

In 1622, Sir William Alexander sent out his first band of emigrants; but as a colony, it proved a failure. Then he turned his thoughts to conquest. In 1627, Sir David Kirke, by his advice, hastened with three war-sloops to the St. Lawrence, and there captured eighteen French vessels, laden with provisions and arms for Port Royal and Quebec. Next year he took possession of Quebec and left it in charge of an English garrison.

At the siege of Quebec, where the bitter fate of Poutrincourt was meted out to Champlain now grown grey in the service, there appeared a Frenchman, whose name was even then well known in Acadia, and whose possessions there made him, when taken prisoner by Kirke, a valuable prize in the hands of the English. This was Claude De Latour. He and his son Charles, both Pro-

testants in religion, yet having some influence at the French court, had received a grant of territory on both sides of the Bay of Fundy, which they afterwards guarded by the erection of two forts, the one near the mouth of the St. John, and the other at Cape Sable. The former, however, had been abandoned; and Charles was commandant at Cape Sable, when his father fell into the hands of Sir David Kirke, and, along with Champlain, was carried to London.

In England De Latour fared well. The smiles of the king and the intrigues of courtiers turned the Frenchman's head, and made him, in a few months, an English subject in heart and name. He was admitted to the highest society, married an English lady of wealth and rank, became a Baronet of Nova Scotia, and was reinstated in his Acadian property by Sir William Alexander. At length he departed for Cape Sable with two armed vessels, to regulate the affairs of the colony, and to change, by reason or force, his son's allegiance. The task was a hard one. Charles De Latour was indignant at his father's disloyalty, and sneering at his follies in England, refused to be convinced by his arguments. The father retorted by an attack on the fort. For two days it was courageously resisted, to end in a truce and a treaty. De Latour asked from his son permission to enter merely as a resident. This was refused, even when he laid aside his arms. The gates of the fort were closed against the man who had sold his country. The punishment of the traitor was overwhelming. To return to France or England was equally impossible. He was obliged to submit to the terms of the treaty, which suffered him to build a house for himself and family at a short distance from the fort, where he remained until he had made preparations for building a fort opposite Port Royal. Sir Claude De Latour disappears from the history of our country in 1635, when his son became Lieutenant Governor, though not before Sir William Alexander, in a fit of disappointment, had transferred to him the whole of Nova Scotia.

By the Treaty of St. Germains, which, in 1632, brought the war between France and England to a close, the Acadian forts possessed by the English were given up to the French.

Isaac Razilly, the first governor after this treaty, died in 1635, and was succeeded by D'Aulnay Charnisé. Razilly had established a colony at La Have, where he resided during his brief reign; but his successor, giving no heed to the division he had made of Acadia, satisfactory to the claims of Charles De Latour, removed this colony to Penobscot, and began to encroach on his neighbour's authority. This led to strife and an appeal to Louis XIII. Boundary lines were again drawn, giving Charnisé the rule of the shores on the St. John side of the Bay of Fundy. These De Latour refused to accept, as he was unwilling to retire from his fort at St. John. An attempt was made to arrest him, but was met with open resistance. Receiving succour from Boston, he drove Charnisé to Port Royal. Charnisé, in retaliation, took several New England vessels, and forced Governor Winthrop to withdraw his aid from De Latour. Then, in person, Charnisé sought help from France, and Madame De Latour, now openly taking her part in the struggle, went to England to enlist the sympathy of her friends. Both returned with money, but no men, to carry on the contest. This was in 1643. Two years later, these two met within the ramparts of St. John fort, the one to show the other how far a brave woman can withstand the cruelty of a coward.

It was Easter Day. Charnisé had taken advantage of De Latour's absence in making his attack on the settlement; but Madame De Latour, hurriedly securing its defences, returned his fire with powerful effect, and gave no sign of weakness in her plan of resistance. At every point she kept him at bay. Her dauntless bearing infused life in her followers, and kept them at the guns; her courageous words thrilled their hearts. The activity thus excited deceived Charnisé, as his loss in killed and

wounded increased the terror of his treacherous spirit. He believed himself on the verge of defeat by a woman. Sounding a truce, he listened to the honourable terms on which she would surrender, and was only too glad to assent to them. But what he thought his good fortune was only his disgrace. When he entered the fort, he found a mere handful of men ready to deliver up their arms to a force six times their number. His rage knew no bounds. He raved, he swore, he denounced every one for deception, which could be traced directly to his own cowardice; he ordered the whole garrison to be hung, and then led Madame De Latour, with a rope round her neck, to witness the ghastly spectacle. The ruffian, though he knew not how to take a weak fort, had learned how to crush a woman's heart. His personal insults this noble wife could meet with unbending dignity, but her spirit sank within her at the horrid sight of her murdered garrison—to them a fearful reward for their loyalty to her husband's cause. She died before the return of De Latour.

Charnisé now ruled over the whole country, favoured by France notwithstanding his crime, and hindered in his schemes only by a guilty conscience and a people suspicious of his conduct. De Latour sought safety in the wilds of Canada among the fur-traders, living there until the death of his rival in 1650. The following year saw him Governor of Acadia. France, busily engaged with difficulties at home, readily forgave him, and, stranger still, the family of Charnisé gave up their claims, and put an end to the feud by consenting to his marriage with the widow of his late enemy.

De Latour's path, however, was still thorny. The creditors of Charnisé became troublesome. They importuned the new governor, who at this time could hardly meet his own liabilities, for the payment of a large sum of money. This being refused, the chief of the creditors, named Le Borgne, sailed for America to seize what remained of his debtor's property, threatened the fort of Chedabucto, burnt La Have, and finally settled, as owner

of the country, at Port Royal. De Latour retired to St. John, to await the change of fortune; in 1654 it came, but from an unexpected quarter.

This brings us to the story of Nicholas Denys. In the partition of Acadia by Governor Razilly, Denys, who had established himself at Rossignol, a merchant in fish and peltry, received as his share the coast extending from Gaspé to Canso. His prosperity at Rossignol, however, induced him to postpone the settlement of this large district until the death of Razilly, when Charnisé, arriving from France, drove him further to the north. Chedabucto, (now Guysborough,) was his first resting-place, and there, while Charnisé and De Latour were engaged in the deadly strife already mentioned, his genius found employment in the clearing of land, the building of warehouses and rude bastions, and in the regulation of the fisheries. Beyond Chedabucto he erected forts at St. Peter's and St. Anne's in Cape Breton, and placed a fishing establishment at Miscou, becoming altogether the possessor of wealth not likely to escape the greedy sweep of Le Borgne's eye, when he came to seize Acadia in lieu of Charnisé's debts.

Le Borgne, in surprising Chedabucto while Denys was absent in Cape Breton, sent an officer with sixty men to attack St. Peter's, where he heard that a ship laden with provisions and a number of immigrants had just arrived. This officer seized everything valuable in the place, and then, confining the inhabitants in one or two buildings, prepared an ambush for the capture of Denys on his way back from St. Anne's. This was successful. Denys was borne in timid triumph to Chedabucto and thence to Port Royal, where Le Borgne foolishly assumed the position of governor without the imperial sanction. This was crime enough for him, and fear forced him to set Denys free, Denys returned to France. The story of his wrongs told in his favour. He received a new commission from the *Company of Nouvelle France*, was re-established in his property, and reached Acadia to be rescued from the

schemes of his enemy, Le Borgne, by the sudden arrival at Port Royal of Colonel Sedgewick, one of Cromwell's soldiers.

Oliver Cromwell, who had no faith in his king nor the treaties he had signed, was one of those, in whom the cession of Acadia to France excited indignation. By the prowess of his 'Ironsides' he had overthrown the monarchy of England, and when raised to the position of Lord Protector he set to work to wipe out the disgrace of the last French treaty by restoring Acadia as an English province. He had heard of the troubles in that colony, caused by Le Borgne, and to restore order was his excuse for sending Colonel Sedgewick, with a sufficient force, to drive the French rulers out of the country. Sedgewick's work was soon done. The forts at St. John, Port Royal, and Penobscot fell into his hand without a struggle. Le Borgne was taken prisoner, and in a short time the English retired to Boston, without infringing, however, upon the rights of Denys, who was again making great efforts to improve his settlements in Cape Breton.

Then De Latour hurried home to England to lay his claims before the Protector, showing him how they were founded by birth, marriage, and the bequest of the sister of Charnisé. The evidence was conclusive, and in 1656 it was confirmed by order of Cromwell, who, in letters patent, restored to De Latour his Acadian possessions, subject to the joint supervision of William Crowne and Sir Thomas Temple—the gentlemen now associated with him in the government of the colony. A short time after, De Latour sold his share in this Company to his associates, retaining only a small portion of land, near which he spent the last ten years of his life in retirement. He died in 1666, leaving a name behind him which, in the career of his noble wife and himself, can never be forgotten. Enterprising and honourable, stubborn in his honesty, and proud of his position, he left his mark on Acadia—an industrious labourer in its early development.

The interference of Cromwell in the affairs of the pro-

vince did little for it, outside of the improvements made upon its fortifications. Sir Thomas Temple expended twenty thousand pounds on the various forts, but otherwise neglected the splendid resources at his service. He neither encouraged immigration nor agriculture. He was an English ruler over a French people, a colonial governor, acting the *role* of a feudal lord. His policy was to protect, not to expand; to preserve what he had, not to extend its usefulness. What he had were only two or three forts, the periodic resort of fur-traders and fishermen, and even these he could not save from the French, after the death of his great friend the Lord Protector.

Two years after the Restoration in England, France demanded Acadia from Charles II. The New Englanders, whose sympathies were with Sir Thomas Temple, petitioned the king against the demand. The effect was only delay. In 1667, according to the terms of the Treaty of Breda, the fickle monarch ceded the whole Province to the French, and in face of Sir William Temple's protest and the outcry of the people of New England, the Chevalier de Grand Fontaine, as French governor, took possession of the country.

CHAPTER VI

NEWFOUNDLAND—CALVERT AND KIRKE.

Guy's Colony.
Whitbourne's Court.
Lord Baltimore.
Kirke's rule.
Fort Placentia.
D'Iberville's siege.

For thirty years after Sir Humphrey Gilbert's melancholy fate, no one tried to make more of Newfoundland than a mere resting-place for the fishermen, on which to dry their cargoes of fish for the European market. Several profitable voyages had been made; but to John Guy, a Bristol alderman, is due the honour of troubling the political waters, in favour of founding on it an English colony. In a little book he published, an account was given of his year's trip round the Island, accompanied with arguments which, in their effect, caused Sir Francis Bacon to sue the king for a grant of the whole to the Company of which he was a member. A patent was issued, and Guy bore it with him as he set sail with his band of colonists, to settle near the thickets of Mosquito Cove. At first, the friendship of the natives was an augury of success. From their huts, the colonists roamed at will in the forests, and fished in the harbours, hearing of the Indian outrages on one or two French companies, but escaping all harm. Sickness, however, arising from the change of life, was their first distress, and the final cause of the ruin of the colony.

The Company of Planters, when they lost the services of Alderman Guy, who returned to England broken in health, engaged Captain Whitbourne to collect the royalty on fish and oil,—to try in his Court of Admiralty the disputes between the traders, and to keep in order the colonists who did not follow Guy to England. His was no idle task. The grievances of nearly two hundred captains, who, as a combination, thought to resist the

orders of the Company, tried his temper as a judge. It was hard to please men who desired no supervision, or who hated Whitbourne as a spy on their luck. A crowd of pirates, destroying as much property as they stole, added to his trouble, which even the arrival of Doctor Vaughan, an influential planter who settled on the island near him, could not dispel. The best fruit of Whitbourne's labour was the Welsh colony he established at Little Britain.

Another change brought a brighter ray of hope. That fickle monarch, James I., in bestowing honours on Sir George Calvert, one of his favourites, made over to him a new patent of Newfoundland, with the supervision of all pertaining to its government and trade. Sir George had just been converted to the Roman Catholic faith, and longed for a retired spot on which to begin a new life. This spot he saw, or thought he saw, on the little peninsula, Avalon, to the east of Newfoundland; for, sending Captain Wynne to build for himself and family a comfortable residence, he actually sailed for the West in 1623, and established himself at Ferryland under the shadow of a strong fort. He was now Lord Baltimore and Governor of Newfoundland. But peace came to him with neither title. To subdue the pirates was his first toil. The French, who had established a colony at Placentia, tried to wrest his property from him, but the three war-ships which they sent were chased for miles back to the eastward. Yet his great grief was on the land. His religious zeal was distasteful to his Puritan subjects. Distrust met him at his own door, and stories were spread against him in England. In his letters to Britain, he began to fret at his seclusion and the climate. Then war between France and England brought back the French cruisers to annoy him. Of this he wrote to the king, who, in return, advised him to leave all, and resume his former position at Court; but, as his pride would not suffer him to re-encounter the jeers of his former associates, he rejected the proposal, and sought for a second grant of ter-

ritory in Maryland. While the papers for the new patent were being prepared, news of his death reached England. Still, his design was not buried with him. His son fell heir to the father's patent, and finally became ruler of a colony, of which the largest city records the fact in its name, Baltimore. The influence of Lord Baltimore on Newfoundland was by no means a loss to it. The island from his time began to throw off its desert look; while St. John's, crowded with the seamen who visited it for supplies, and connected by a few rough roads with the other settlements, became a place of some importance. A few years after, was introduced the regulation which made the French traders pay five per cent. of the value of their cargoes.

Sir David Kirke was the next to think of Newfoundland as a place suitable for emigrants. Lords Hamilton, Pembroke and Holland were partners of the Company which provided him with money and ships; for, notwithstanding young Baltimore's opposition, Kirke obtained a grant from King Charles, and tried to make the most of it. He made Ferryland his abode, living in Lord Baltimore's old home. Knowing there was a prejudice against the island as a place on which Europeans could live, he tried to crush it by sending home glowing descriptions of its commerce and resources. About four hundred families were settled in various districts, and these, he said, did not curse the climate as those who had never set foot on Avalon or its precincts. But his desire to succeed did not decrease the number of his enemies. The French were against him, and the voice of the French ambassador had weight at the court where the queen was a native of France. The taxes laid on the fish traders raised a howl of discontent which formed a pretext for petitions to the king from some of the seaports of England. But the civil war between Charles and his Parliament was Kirke's ruin. He was a loyalist and a churchman. He had corresponded with Laud, and when reverses came, had offered Prince Rupert and his royal

uncle an asylum. Thus in 1652 his estates were sequestrated, and he himself ordered home, till the charges against him were investigated. Then he gave part of his property to the son-in-law of Cromwell, and in this way gained an influence which turned the tide again in his favour. He returned to Newfoundland, and there he died; though through the intrigues of Lord Baltimore, his heirs were disinherited at the Restoration.

For a number of years after this the fishermen, in their poverty, groaned under the exactions of the merchants, and the merchants blamed the planters. It was impossible for the English authorities to know where the real blame lay, until Sir John Berry visited the island, and made his report, unfavourable to the merchants. These, in their aim to grow rich, cared not for the general prosperity of the colony; and as they wanted the whole island for themselves, they threw every obstacle in the way of establishing settlements. There were other enemies. The pirates still reaped a harvest. The Dutch, in their war-ships, visited St. John's twice,—the first time to victual their fleet; the second, to destroy and pillage. The French were also growing powerful at Placentia. There they had built a fort, which afforded protection to fifty families who plundered the English with impunity. Open war only made matters worse; for, when Commodore Williams tried to make a ruin of Placentia, he was not only defeated but disgraced, and gave cause for the still more ruinous descent of D'Iberville on all the English villages.

The great hope of D'Iberville was to reduce St. John's before the winter set in. When he arrived at Placentia, he found four hundred men from Quebec, waiting to be led against the English by land, while the fleet of fourteen French vessels beset their capital by sea. To meet the land force, the English could only muster eighty men. The difference was too great. Nearly half the English were killed, and the other half, with the inhabitants of St. John's, took refuge in the new fort at the entrance to

the harbour, to surrender after a three day's siege. The reins of revenge were now let loose. From place to place the French spread, punishing, plundering, and burning. The cold blasts of winter and its snow was not even a check to them : the harbours were open, the ports had no defences, and the Canadians were well trained to march for miles with their snow-shoes. All but Carbonear and Bonavista were destroyed : there the fishermen clung to their homes and beat back the invaders.

When D'Iberville returned to France, England sent out Sir John Norris with two regiments of soldiers. But there was nothing to do ; for the French had abandoned St. John's a few months before the Treaty of Ryswick, by which Newfoundland was restored to Britain, and by which they so easily escaped punishment for their cruelty.

CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY DURING THE FIRST PERIOD.

When the Basque fishermen and traders found their way to the Banks of Newfoundland and the shores of Cape Breton, they cared for none of the country's wealth save its fish and furs. They saw the thick forest around merely as a hunting-ground, in which roamed the bear, beaver, and sable, whose skins had a welcome market in the cities of Europe. At first, the owners of the vessels which arrived once a year, bought the furs from the natives to sell them at their own prices. But as the trade increased, stations were selected at which the fur-trappers could leave their spoils in exchange for money or provisions. The collectors at these places, as the first merchants, were also the first farmers. Around their rude dwellings they cleared and cultivated the patch of land which produced for them a season's supply of corn and vegetables.

From Lescarbot's History of New France we learn of the labours, pleasures, and hardships of Acadia's first settlement. For a time there was peace with the Indians, and no thought of invasion. The abundant provisions brought from France were further increased by the game and fish of the valley and river. The natives brought in large quantities of furs, and showed their white friends where and how more could be found. The Society of *Le bon temps*, with its feasts and frolics, its hunting and exploring parties, its poems and songs, helped to wear away the fierce winter days with their long nights, as each of the leaders took his turn in providing for the delicacies of its common table. At its festivals, the presence of Membertou, bent with his eighty years, formed the living link between the age of barbarism going out and that of civilization coming in.

The courage and the influence of the French Jesuits undertook the conversion of the Indian. Their first attempt had been slighted. But when Madame Guercheville, a maid of honour at the French Court, came to their assistance with her fortune and prayers, they sailed to Acadia, and at once began to preach Christianity among the wigwam villages of Membertou's tribe. They were not always welcomed by the swarthy heathen, yet none of them endured the terrible woes of those of their Society who went to Canada. Father Masse, on one occasion, came back from a forest journey, reduced to a skeleton by starvation, vermin, and fatigue. Much of the seed of Christianity thus sown, it is true, fell upon stony ground; for as long as the presents lasted, the wily savages were ready converts, but when famine fell upon Port Royal, and poverty on the priests, they soon forsook the faith which brought them no tangible profit. Still, the Fathers persevered in the good work, notwithstanding the ingratitude.

Before and after the contest between Latour and Charnise, several families tried their luck as farmers, outside of the fur trade; but as the forts at the various points of the coast were built to protect only those engaged in curing fish and skins, these received little encour-

agement. For many years, provisions continued to come from Europe as return cargoes; while the larger number of the white population roamed over the forests in a semi-civilized state.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES AND EXPLANATIONS.

Marco Polo, the illustrious traveller, was born of a noble family at Venice in 1250. While travelling with his father and uncle in Asia, he found favour with the Emperor of China, by whom he was appointed ambassador to Tonquin, and afterwards governor of a Chinese province. He wrote *Il Milione*, a book of personal observations on the manners and customs of China, Japan, India and Persia. His descriptions, for a time disbelieved by his countrymen, were corroborated by the missionaries to the East. He died member of the Grand Council of Venice in 1323.

Christopher Columbus, born in 1436, was the son of a woolcomber of Genoa. Having devoted some attention to the studies of geography, navigation and astronomy at Pavia in Italy, where he married the daughter of a distinguished navigator, he went to Lisbon and there set up in business as a designer of maps and charts. Thence he made voyages to the Canaries, Azores and Guinea, during which he began to dream of a westward course to India. After making four voyages to the West Indies, he returned to Spain to be treated with ingratitude by Ferdinand and to die in poverty at Valladolid in 1506. Ferdinand, ashamed of his conduct, gave the remains of the illustrious sailor a splendid funeral and placed over them a magnificent monument.

Sebastian Cabot accompanied his father on voyages to Newfoundland and Mexico, and by some is accredited with the discovery of the former place. At his father's death he went to Spain as chart-maker, where his project of sailing in search of a north-west passage to Asia was frustrated by the death of Ferdinand. Having been insulted by some of the Spanish courtiers, he returned to England and was sent by Henry VIII. to Labrador and Hudson Bay. He was also employed by Charles V. of Spain to explore Brazil and La Plata. When inspector of the English navy under Edward VI., he encouraged the opening of commerce with Russia.

Amerigo Vespucci, the son of a notary, was born in 1451. Educated by his uncle, a monk, he moved to Seville, where he joined an important mercantile firm. The discovery of Columbus and the fame it produced excited him so intensely, that, giving up fine prospects of money-making to others, he set sail from Cadiz for the new continent, and after a voyage of thirty-seven days reached the Bay of Paria. In his last voyage of four, he landed on the coast of Brazil. He died in Seville. No blame can be attached to Amerigo on account of the invention of the name America. His writings, descriptive of his travels, were very popular throughout the whole of Europe.

Isabella, Queen of Castile, was married to Ferdinand, King of Arragon—a union which prepared the way for the consolidation of Spain, as one kingdom. Isabella ruled equal with her husband, who for many years was busily engaged in subduing the Moors and the other states, in a series of successful wars. She encouraged commerce, and was the enthusiastic patron of Columbus and Cabot.

Sir Walter Raleigh was born at Hayes in Devonshire, England, 1552. At the age of sixteen he entered Oriel College, Oxford, but left it soon after to fight on the side of the Huguenots and to join the cause of the Prince of Orange. He was associated with Sir H. Gilbert in the plan to colonize North America, and knighted by Queen Elizabeth. After the defeat of the Spanish Armada, honour and wealth were showered upon him, but these he lost when James I. became king, and when his part in the plot to place Arabella Stewart on the throne was discovered. From prison he was released, to explore the gold mines of Guiana. The failure of this was the cause of his execution in 1618.

Henry, King of Navarre, born in Bearn, 1553. Educated a Protestant, he became leader of the Huguenots, with whom he fought the battle of Jarnac. He married Margaret of Valois, a week before the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, from the general sweep of which he escaped by promising to change his faith. The murder of Henry III. made him King of France by birth, and his victory in the "Battle of the League" made him king by force. He was a wise and popular monarch. He married, as his second wife, the famous Mary de Medici. Much to the distress of the whole nation, he was assassinated by a maniac who rushed into his coach as it drove through the streets of Paris.

Sir William Alexander was born at Menstrie in Scotland, 1580. He began life as travelling companion to the Duke of Argyle. As one of the favourites of James I., he was honoured with numerous titles and public offices, and became Earl Doban. He obtained a grant of Nova Scotia, and through his influence, the dignity of "Baronet of Nova Scotia" was created. He wrote several poems and dramas.

Lord Baltimore, born in Yorkshire, England, was elected a member of parliament shortly after he had completed his studies at Oxford. At first, clerk to the Privy Council, he was knighted by James I., and then appointed Secretary of State, with a gratuity from the king of £1,000 a year. His change of faith forced him to resign his office, and seek retirement in America. He named the peninsula on which he first landed *Avalon*, in token of his desire to plant Christianity there. Avalon is the old name of the district in which Christianity was first preached in England.

Sir David Kirke was born the son of a London merchant in 1597. As Captain Kirke, he sailed up the St. Lawrence and captured a large quantity of French property. On his second voyage, he took Quebec, to the distress of Champlain, its founder. With the honour of

knighthood he received a grant of Newfoundland, where he remained, until summoned home on account of evil reports spread against him. He died on the island.

Pierre D'Iberville, a native of Montreal, was a distinguished officer in the French Navy. Along with Brouillan, he made an attack on St. John's, Newfoundland, and burnt it to the ground. He explored the Mississippi and founded a colony at its mouth. Died 1706.

Baronet of Nova Scotia, was the title conferred upon those gentlemen who, by sailing over to Nova Scotia, did something towards its settlement, and assisted Sir William Alexander to fit out his expeditions. Their badge bore the Latin phrase—*Fax meritis honestæ gloria* encircling the escutcheon of Scotland's arms. The title was afterwards amalgamated with the order of Baronets of Scotland.

The Jesuits, or Society of Jesus, formed a religious order of the Roman Catholic Church founded by Ignatius of Loyola and his five associates. Their motto was *Ad majorem Dei Gloriam*, and with this aim they bound themselves to go forth to any part of the world as missionaries. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, they were to be met at every court in Europe, noting carefully the political changes, and working for the extension of their faith.

The Treaty of Breda was the end of the second Dutch war in the reign of Charles I. To the Dutch it gave New York, to the French Nova Scotia, to the English some of the islands of the West Indies.

PRINCIPAL DATES—FIRST PERIOD.

Eric discovers Greenland,..... 982	Port Royal founded,.....1605
Columbus reaches S. Salvador, ..1492	Sir W. Alexander's grant,..1622
Cabot's first voyage,.....1497	Siege of Quebec by Kirke,...1629
Cartier enters Bay Chaleur,.....1534	Fort Latour taken,.....1645
Roberval, Viceroy of N. France, 1546	Denys in Cape Breton,.....1645
Sir H. Gilbert's voyage,.....1583	Cromwell's raid,.....1654
Convicts on Sable Island,.....1598	Treaty of Breda,.....1667
DeMonts' Charter,.....1604	D'Iberville at St. John's,..1696

SECOND PERIOD.

CHAPTER I,

PORT ROYAL—ANNAPOLIS.

Siege by Phips.
The Nashwaak.
Church's raid.
Nicholson's siege.
Evil days.
Treaty of Utrecht.
Indian War.
Norridgouac.

During the forty-six years between the Treaties of Breda and Utrecht, leading events clustered, for the most part, around the little fort at the head of Annapolis Basin, then the recognised capital of the country, though still but roughly fortified against the attacks of its enemies. The province, ruled by men whose main object was to crush the enterprise of their opponents, and disturbed by the perpetual dread of invasion, made very little progress. No settlement from north to south was free from the terror of ruin to come. The Acadians knew too well the jealousy with which the Puritans of New England viewed French prosperity, and little did they care to sow what another might reap, to clear land for their sworn foe. On the other hand, the New Englanders, aware of the fickleness of the mother country in settling the disputes of Acadia, took forts and seized territory, more for the sake of checking their rivals than to extend protection to any system of re-settlement by their own countrymen. The declaration of war between France and England in 1689, was all that was necessary to precipitate the quarrel, which, as a storm on Acadia, had been brewing for more than ten years.

Sir William Phips, a man of no ordinary courage and experience, was despatched from Boston early in the spring of 1690, with an armament of six vessels and eight hundred men. His purpose was to take Port Royal—a

small undertaking for such a force. Menneval, the commandant of the place, having been warned of his approach by a signal from the guard at the mouth of the bay, prepared to receive him with a show of defence. Phips thought the place stronger than it really was, and offered reasonable terms in case of surrender, promising to allow the governor and his garrison to retire to Quebec, to leave untouched the property of the settlers, and to grant liberty in matters of religion. Menneval was satisfied and received the besiegers within the fort. Then Phips saw his mistake. He had dallied with a place which could not have held out against him for six hours. The fortifications were but mounds of earth, without guns at the spot where these were most required, while the garrison numbered only eighty men, depending on the people outside for provisions. Phips accused the governor of deception, and to hide his own error from the New Englanders on his return, took the whole garrison prisoners to Boston. Port Royal was left undefended.

Chevalier de Villebon was the next French governor. Learning that Phips was still under commission to watch Acadia for the English, he resolved to leave Port Royal in ruins, and proceeded to the St. John river, where he continued to reside for many years. Here for a time he was powerless, save in his intrigues with the Indians, whom he encouraged in many lawless acts against his enemies. Towards the close of his rule he was associated with D'Iberville, who had been sent from Quebec to destroy Pemaquid, a fort built by the English east of the Kennebec. Through the co-operation of Baron St. Castine with a troop of his Indian subjects, the siege ended in the fort's destruction, though the two commanders narrowly escaped the clutches of a New England fleet sent to watch that part of the coast.

Villebon's stronghold on the St. John was built at the mouth of the Nashwaak. Here, lord of the unexplored forest, and governor of a company of French soldiers and idle savages, he deemed himself secure from invasion.

But his escapade at Pemaquid, and his practice of protecting pirates who carried their prizes to the St. John, directed his enemies towards his retreat. Colonel Church, an old New England cruiser with sharp eyes and a crusty temper, who had already accomplished his first excursion among the French settlers on the Bay of Fundy, to be a curse in their mouths for his cruelty, was commissioned to pilot several war-sloops up the river in search of Villebon's capital. In passing the forts at the Nerepis and Jemseg, the English roused the French scouts, who at once fled to the Nashwaak bearing the news of approaching danger. Villebon prepared for a desperate resistance. With fluent tongue he encouraged his men to stand by the fort to the last; and all were on the alert when the ships guided by Church moved round the bend of the river in full view of the fort. The English landed at a point below, and marched through the forest to a position on the shore of the Nashwaak, opposite the guns of the French. There they raised an earth-fort mounted with three guns; but these were soon silenced by a vigorous fire from the enemy. Night fell upon the English unprepared for its frost and cheerless gloom. They had no tents, and as their camp-fires were but guides to the French gunners in their aim, these had to be put out. The men grew disheartened, for next day brought no better cheer. Twenty-five of their comrades had fallen. The fort and its garrison stood unhurt; and besides, Villebon had the sympathy of the natives, who were heard whooping around the English camp. To retreat to the ships was the only hope of safety for the besiegers; and when all had been embarked, it was decided to steer again for the Bay of Fundy.

M. Brouillan was Villebon's successor. The policy of these two men, alike in its character, had a woful effect upon the spirit of the English farmers and fishermen. The former were driven from the soil, the latter from the coasts; and to complete the work of persecution, Indians and pirates were invited from all parts of Acadia. The

Treaty of Ryswick was read by Villebon, to be forgotten in his designs for extending the French power beyond the natural limits. The commissioners, appointed in 1696, failed to fix a boundary-line between New England and New France. Part of the disputed territory was seized by the French governors. The English settlers on the shores of the Kennebec were ordered to leave their farms. A Roman Catholic chapel was raised, as an emblem of French prowess, in face of a Puritan hatred of both. At last the evil and insult became too great to be borne. During the winter of 1703, a band of Indians and French massacred the inhabitants of Deerfield in Massachusetts, and ravaged every village and farm-house around. This was the signal for retaliation.

In 1704, Colonel Church was sent on his second merciless expedition. With a force of fifteen vessels and five hundred men, he was commissioned to destroy everything French along the Bay of Fundy; and truly he performed his work in a manner satisfactory to the blindest spirit of revenge. From Penobscot to Chiegnecto nearly every French village was burned to the ground and the inhabitants forced to seek shelter in the woods; while around Beaubassin and the district of Minas, every means of defence was removed, the refractory put to death, and all property torn down to be swept away by the tide, which the dykes that had been cut down by the avengers, no longer kept back: every Indian, caught within range of an English musket, was ruthlessly put to death. Strange to say, Port Royal which had been re-built by Brouillan escaped, for three years, the sweep of this revenge.

M. Subercase was governor when the first blow fell. This followed the decision of the government of Massachusetts to drive every Frenchman out of Acadia; but Colonel Marsh, with his two regiments and ship of fifty guns, found Subercase ready to receive him, and able to keep him out of the fort. This led to a second attempt, to be repelled in the same way. There was no peace. The French as masters retaliated in turn, and punished

as they had been punished. At length the British government interfered, and offered the people of Boston money sufficient to raise four regiments, with transports and four ships of war to convey them to Port Royal, assuring them, at the same time, that if they could take possession of the whole Atlantic sea-board, never again would it be given up by treaty. This was what New England wanted. In a few months, the men were ready under their general, Frank Nicholson, a man of experience as a soldier and ruler, and one who had already honoured the flag of England by his success. Yet in Subercase, he found a foeman worthy of his steel, who, with his three hundred men, could even dare to resist the three thousand English marshalled before his fort, by refusing to listen to terms of submission. The humanity of the English general, however, prevented the loss of blood on either side. Twice he sent a summons to surrender, using only threats; and, at last, Subercase, having no hope of succour from France, which at this time had enough to do at home in its struggle with Marlborough, and knowing that some of his men were only waiting an opportunity to desert, prudently accepted the terms offered by the enemy. The French troops and two hundred of the inhabitants were sent to France in English transports. A number took the oath of allegiance and remained on their farms, while others emigrated to Cape Breton and Miramichi. An English garrison under Colonel Vetch, took up their abode within the fort; and thus, did Port Royal become in name, Annapolis; Acadié, in government, Nova Scotia.

General Nicholson was now nominal governor, although not till 1714, did he assume the position by right. Immediately after the surrender of Port Royal, he was engaged in a scheme, supported by the British government, and having for its purpose the reduction of New France, or all Canada, to English rule. During his absence, the garrison at Annapolis suffered from sickness and Indian attacks. The country was still disorganized.

The Acadians, never expecting the English to remain permanent masters of the country, refused to take the oath of allegiance, and Colonel Vetch engaged in repelling fitful skirmishes against the fort, had no means to force them to submit. Danger and suspicions of danger were the cause of daily alarm. No soldier could walk beyond the ramparts in safety. Bands of savages were everywhere. A company of seventy men with two officers, sent out to organize the settlements along the banks of the river, fell a prey to an Indian ambush, thirty of them being killed and the rest carried off to the butchers' wigwams. This encouraged five hundred of the settlers around to invest the fort, with the hope that the Governor of Quebec would send them assistance. But no help came. Quebec and its governor were in dread of a general invasion, and had trouble enough on their hands: hence, the Acadians were obliged to submit to their fate and English rule.

The attempt by Britain to wrest the whole of Canada from France was a failure, full of disappointment to the one and fatigue to the other, and attended with an expenditure to both, sufficient to create a desire for peace on both sides. The war of the Spanish Succession gave to Marlborough and the British arms, the victories of *Blenheim*, *Ramilies*, *Oudenarde* and a number of others; but the very length of the war made the people of England long for peace, while the failure of the expedition to Canada made them demand it. During the negotiations, France made an effort to regain Nova Scotia, but was content to accept Cape Breton; by the twelfth article of the treaty, which brought the negotiations to an end, the whole of Nova Scotia with Newfoundland was made the property of Great Britain. This was the famous Treaty of Utrecht, ratified in 1713.

General Philips was the second governor after the Treaty of Utrecht. His predecessor, General Nicholson, left him a legacy of trouble, which he, in turn, left to his successor, for even his plan of a representative council, to

meet at Annapolis, did not satisfy the Acadians in their refusal to submit as subjects, loyal to the British Crown. They said, they would rather leave the country than take the oath of allegiance, and prepared to go to Cape Breton; but as their departure would have been an immediate loss to Nova Scotia, the government at Annapolis threw obstacles in the way of a general migration.

Colonel Armstrong took the governorship when General Philips withdrew to England in 1722. At the end of seventeen years' rule, his trouble with the Acadians increased, and preyed so much on his mind, that in a momentary fit of insanity, he fell a victim to his own sword. After his death until 1749, the commander of Annapolis fort was also governor of the whole province,—an arrangement made in favour of General Philips, by which he could draw his salary and live in England.

At this time, the restlessness of the native population, encouraged by an ample supply of arms, ammunition and provisions from the Acadians, burst into what is known as the Indian War. For seven years after the Treaty of Utrecht, the French fishermen growled at the English traders who flocked round Canso to profit by the fisheries; and Canso was the first point of attack in 1720. One dark night in the August of that year, a troop of Indians, in their war-paint, rushed upon the dwellings and store-houses, driving the fishermen to their boats, seizing and torturing the traders, killing four men, and carrying away fish and stores to the value of eighty thousand dollars. French vessels bore away the spoil,—a sufficient reason for an appeal to the Governor of Cape Breton, even after part of the stolen goods was recovered by a sloop, which happened to arrive next day. No action, however, was taken on the appeal, until an investigation at Annapolis proved the French culpable, and even then Colonel Armstrong had to employ threats to recover the rest of the property. One year after this, two traders were murdered at the same place, and in the following year, seven New England vessels were captured on the southern

shore of Nova Scotia, and taken back to Malagash. The vessels were re-captured, but not before a number of their crews had been killed. In 1724, the Indians again attacked Annapolis with a loss of blood on both sides. Then followed the massacre of a crew of nine men by the savages at the Gut of Canso. But all this was nothing to the sufferings endured by the English settlers on the border. There everything was done by stealth, with no chance to retaliate. The swarthy savages rushed from their dens in the forest, committed the darkest of crimes, and then rushed back, safe from punishment. From their war-whoop and knife there was little chance of escape. Men, women, and children were murdered in cold blood, and their scalps borne away in triumph. What property the monsters could not carry, they destroyed by fire, until at length the whole district of the Kennebec looked as if it had been overrun by every form of death and destruction. Several companies of soldiers were sent from Boston to keep the Indians in check; but, knowing nothing of the forest tracks, they could do nothing practical. Even the reward of one hundred pounds for every Indian scalp had little effect. The evil had to be crushed at its centre.

At Norridgouac, near the Kennebec, there stood a large Indian encampment, where a French priest was known to have great influence with the chiefs, urging them by bribe and religious threat, to destroy everything English. An English force surrounded the palisades of the place in 1724, and, notwithstanding the stubborn resistance of fifty warriors, reduced it in a few hours. No quarter was demanded, none was offered. Six chiefs and their subjects were alike killed where they fought, and the war was virtually at an end. The Micmacs around Canso and Annapolis, hearing of the defeat, kept quiet for many years.

Colonel Paul Mascarene took charge of affairs in Nova Scotia, on the death of Governor Armstrong in 1739. As a Frenchman, he did more to pacify the Acadians

than all the governors before him, and, as a viceroy, he never failed to keep his superior informed of the real condition of the country and its fortifications. In 1744, war again broke out between France and England, and Mascarene at once made his position at Annapolis strong enough to repel an Indian attack and a hostile force from Louisbourg. Of the latter place we now learn something, in the opening of a new epoch of our country's history.

CHAPTER II.

LOUISBOURG.

The City's origin.
Canso and Annapolis.
Shirley's Commission.
Pepperell at Canso.
The Siege.
Its effect.

About twenty-six miles from Sydney harbour, at the end of the road which the Miré River cuts into two equal lengths, the traveller generally halts to admire the scene which bursts upon him. At his feet, a highland stream, rushing around the boulders and under a rustic bridge, flows into a wide and beautiful basin of water, which here lies within the shelter of grassy slopes, and rugged rocks, covered to their summits with wild-berry bushes. Round this basin runs a road, dotted with fishermen's dwellings, and terminating on the south side in a little pond, near a hamlet of cots and barns. Close by, is a cape of black trap rock, looking down upon huge mounds of earth, here and there covered with debris of stone and brick and lime; while half-way up the slope stretching from the group of cottages, and past the ruined foundation of a long narrow building, are the remains of a tower, on the top of which there is grassy footing safe enough for one to admire from it, the magnificent view which lies towards the north. The scene is one of great beauty, as well as one of great historic interest. The basin of water is Louisbourg harbour, the long narrow building was Louisbourg theatre, the tower is all that exists of the King's Bastion, once the citadel of Louisbourg city.

By the Treaty of Utrecht, the islands of Cape Breton and St. John's alone remained to the French of Acadia. Nicholas Denys was the last that had done anything for the improvement of Cape Breton, but the ruins of his enterprise were alone to be seen: St. Anne's was again a wil-

derness, and St. Peter's little better. St. John's Island—now Prince Edward Island—was still in the hands of the natives and one or two French families. But after 1713, the French, dissatisfied with their fortunes around the Bay of Fundy and driven from Newfoundland by order of the British authorities, flocked in great numbers to the fertile spots near the inlets, and bays, and streams of Cape Breton. The name of Louisbourg then was English Harbour; and as it was easy of access, was open at all seasons of the year, and commanded a suitable site for a fort, the French governor from Newfoundland here took up his residence. For seven years the tide of immigration continued to flow. Then the fortifications, on which the home government spent over a million pounds sterling, were commenced, and to the population of fishermen and farmers were soon added bands of artizans, from the labourer to the master-builder, all seeking employment on the trenches, the walls, and the massive bastions. Even through New England, Louisbourg prospered by an exchange of farm produce and building material for French imported goods, though the old feeling between the two colonies still remained.

Nova Scotia, with its two forts, Canso and Annapolis, could but feebly keep pace with such prosperity. England was indifferent—France was all activity; and in this was Paul Mascarene's chief vexation, when he saw his success in pacifying the Acadians around him, crushed by the intrigues of Louisbourg and its governor with the Indians and the French adventurers who led them. In 1732, an outbreak among the natives, by which property at Chiegnecto and Minas was destroyed, gave rise to the suspicion that the action had been advised by a secret conclave at Louisbourg, and this, with the fact that Governor St. Ovide besought the Acadians not to take the oath of allegiance, hastened events.

The prelude to the first siege of Louisbourg was an attempt on Annapolis. In March, 1744, war was declared between France and England. In May, Canso was de-

spoiled by a force under an officer from Louisbourg. In June, three hundred Indians howled round Annapolis, waiting the arrival of a company of soldiers from Cape Breton. Mascarene sent for aid to Boston, and forced the savages with their leader, a French priest, to retire to Minas, where they failed to join the French on their way to Annapolis. The help from New England and the Louisbourg soldiers having arrived about the same time, Duvivier, the French commander, saw his mistake and retired; and then the authorities at Boston perceived that safety to Nova Scotia and the commerce of their own coasts, could only be maintained by the capture of Louisbourg.

William Shirley, a shrewdly active and determined ruler, was Governor of Massachusetts in 1744. A murmur of indignation had long been afloat in New England, against the growth of French influence in the north, which now, inflamed by articles and reports showing the best mode of attacking Louisbourg with success, and by the destruction to shipping along the coast by French privateers, gave Shirley an opportunity he desired. Relying on naval aid from Britain, he laid before the Council of Boston a scheme for raising a land force. It met with much diversity of opinion. One vote of the representatives decided against it, and a second gave only a majority of one in its favour. But this was enough. The scruples of the Council did not extend to the people. Shirley's proposal was popular with the New Englanders, and Shirley was determined to see it succeed. In a few weeks, four thousand men were ready for transport to Canso,—a battalion, consisting, it is true, of the rawest of recruits, farmers, mechanics, fishermen and woodsmen, but hardy and loyal, all pleased to serve under their zealous commander, Colonel William Pepperell. The complement to this force comprised fourteen vessels carrying two hundred guns.

News, bringing disappointment but no delay, were received by Shirley, when the expedition was about to

set sail. Commodore Warren, stationed at the West Indies with an English squadron, had been invited to co-operate with the New England force, but, with no orders from London, he refused. The refusal was kept a secret, and Pepperell set sail, unchanged in his purpose.

With safety to his troops, he reached Canso in April, and there heard that a field of ice blocked up the entrance to Louisbourg harbour. The delay gave him more time to drill his men, and to fortify his position as a place of retreat. In the meantime, the fort at St. Peter's was destroyed: a prize, laden with rum and molasses, was captured by the cruisers; and a frigate, carrying despatches from Paris, driven to the north. When a month had passed, the harbour was clear of ice; and, as an arrival hailed with joy, Warren joined the camp at Canso with his squadron. One week after, Pepperell had landed his troops on the beach of Gabarus Bay, while Warren took up his station outside the entrance to the fortified harbour.*

The evil to follow fell upon Louisbourg not without warning, but the warning was unheeded by Duchambon, its unlucky governor. The cruisers, sent to reconnoitre, had been seen from the heights, and a merchantman sailed into port announcing his escape from their broadsides. But so little did this move the inhabitants, that the revelry of a Sunday ball had scarcely ceased, when the alarm roused the garrison to see the English in crowds landing from their transports at White Point Cove. Then

*To explain the position of the fortifications, without a map, a capital letter G may be employed. The area within is the harbour: the opening is its entrance. The block distinguishing the letter from a "c," was the city: the point opposite, was the Lighthouse Battery; and midway between these two points, lying in the mouth of the harbour, was the Island Battery. Between the Island and the Lighthouse Battery was the channel: between the Island and the City were a shoal of islets rendering that passage unnavigable. Opposite the Island Battery, on the western beach, was the Grand Battery, and half way round on the beach between the Grand and Lighthouse Batteries stood a row of storehouses.

there was commotion. The roaring of alarm-guns and the ringing of bells brought all the inhabitants within the closed gates—a confused mass, rushing through the narrow streets, with excitement and misery in their faces. For months, the troops under Duchambon had been in a state of mutiny; but their loyalty and personal bravery being awakened by the necessity of the times, they returned to duty without a murmur. A company was immediately sent to check the landing, oaly to be driven back to the city with a loss of six men and their captain. Next day four hundred English appeared close to the walls, and moved round to the storehouses, which stood on the northern arm of the harbour. These they set on fire. The burning of the naval stores in them raised a dense smoke, which, encircling the Grand Battery, drove its gunners in terror to the city. The position was seized by the English. They repaired its thirty guns which had been hurriedly spiked by the French, and turned their deadly fire of shot and shell against the walls of the town,—the opening of a month's bombardment. Pale were the faces of those who, on the street, saw the effect of the first volley—the death of fourteen men.

Pepperell erected a chain of fascine batteries, one within the other, and directed a destructive effort against the fortifications extending from the shore of the harbour to the King's Bastion. To drive the gunners from the nearest of these batteries, Duchambon resolved to make a sortie from the west gate, but, showing a foolish distrust in his garrison, he employed only a small force and failed in his purpose. Meanwhile, the Indians joined by the French settlers around, also attempted to harass the English from the surrounding hills, only to suffer defeat with great loss of life and property. Then Commodore Warren, having captured a vessel of sixty-four guns, laden with arms and the annual supply of military stores from France, and having sent a fire-ship to destroy the shipping at the wharfs, determined to pass the Island Battery, which had been weakened by the erection of a

rude fort on Lighthouse Point. His purpose was to bombard the city from the harbour.

For the besieged there was now no hope of succour, no gain in resistance. When Duchambon saw Warren's ships anchored in line, facing the city, he called for a truce, and then submitted to the terms of the besiegers. These were,—the surrender of the whole island; the immediate removal of the troops to English ships for transportation to France; the safe conduct from the city of those who wished to depart, with civil and religious liberty to those who remained. As a solace to the dispirited garrison, they were allowed to march in arms out of the city with colours flying, on condition that none of them would fight against England for a year.

The besiegers entered in triumph, struck with the remains of strength yet able to resist another month's siege; afterwards to hear of the rejoicings over their courage and its work in New England and old England, and to receive their reward, Warren and Pepperell with baronetcies, the other officers with promotion, and the common soldiery with a liberal share of prize money and rum. Sad to say, the unlimited supply of liquors and provisions stained a brilliant victory, for hundreds, wild in their freedom, died of a fever brought on by excess, during the month which passed before a relief party arrived from Boston.

For some time after the surrender of the town, the French flag continued to flutter from the ramparts as a decoy for French vessels, which, ignorant of recent events, approached the harbour. Three vessels, with nearly a million pounds sterling, were captured by this stratagem.

The French raised two large fleets, to recover Louisbourg. The first, under the Duke of D'Anville, was shattered at sea, the remnant of it reaching Chebucto, where the marines were struck down by pestilence, and where the Admiral died from vexation at his loss. The second fleet was intercepted by a British force near Cape Finisterre, and driven back.

The Acadians were now left to themselves, with some assistance from Quebec. In 1746, a company from New England took up a careless position at Grand Pré, to assist the governor at Annapolis in watching the movements of the enemies. A surprise party fell upon them one night while they were all asleep. Captain Noble tried to rouse his men, but being killed in the confusion of a hand to hand contest, nearly all were taken prisoners and sent to Beaubassin. The negociations for the surrender of Annapolis which followed were, however, cut short by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, when affairs were left as before the siege of Louisbourg—Cape Breton to the French, Nova Scotia to England.

CHAPTER III.

FOUNDING OF HALIFAX—LAWRENCE.

New policy.
Cornwallis governor.
Other settlements.
First Assembly.
Immigration.
Peace.

After the date of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, a change took place in Britain's colonial policy: the expense of defending a country in which there was only a handful of British subjects, convinced British statesmen, that something beyond the building or capturing of forts must be done to make Nova Scotia an English colony in more than name. Conquest without colonization had borne but bitter fruit. Hence a scheme to encourage immigration readily received the sanction of the British ministry. According to this plan, colonists were to be conveyed from Britain free of expense, maintained for a year, and supplied with agricultural implements and weapons of defence against the natives. Special privileges were to be granted to soldiers, who remained in the country as settlers: each to receive a grant of land from fifty to six hundred acres according to rank, with exemption from taxes for two years.

This had the desired effect. In June, 1749, nearly three thousand immigrants arrived in Chebucto Harbour, under the guidance of the Honourable Edward Cornwallis, who had been appointed their leader through the influence of Lord Halifax—a nobleman high in the counsels of his sovereign. Then was repeated the story of another city founded. The selection of the best site within the beautiful inlet, the surveying of streets, the distribution of lots, and the erection of houses, rough, ill-jointed and scarcely sufficient to resist the rigours of a Nova Scotian winter, engaged everybody's attention. The active governor, encouraging all to a great effort, was busy from

morning till night, writing out orders for the building material which came in the ships. There was heart in the work. Division of labour under supervisors, wrought wonders; for when the first snow fell, the little town with its three hundred houses was ready for its inhabitants. There was little outcry against the climate. The first winter is generally the least severe on the immigrant; besides, all had fire-wood a stone-throw from their door. The completion of the governor's residence, raised on the spot where now stands the building of the Provincial Parliament, gave Cornwallis an opportunity to name the place Halifax in honour of his ..ad its patron, and, amidst the ceremony so interesting to its first citizens, to declare it the capital of Nova Scotia. Colonel Mascarene, thus superseded, arrived from Annapolis and joined the new Council organised by his successor.

Cornwallis was governor for three years. The Indians were a sore distress to him and his colony. To watch them and their French abettors, he organized a militia force, fortified Halifax, and raised forts at the principal Acadian settlements. He administered the law by means of three courts,—the Supreme Court, consisting of himself and Council,—the County Court comprising the Halifax Justices—and the Court of the General Sessions. His was the success of energy and courage. In the activity of three years he truly broke down the ruggedness of the path for his successors—Thomas Hopson and Major Lawrence.

Other settlements than Halifax soon sprang up, with little to mar their prosperity save the ill-will of the natives and the jealousy of the Acadians. In 1750, a band of immigrants laid off the streets of Dartmouth, and built on them its first houses. Two years later, when Hopson was governor, two thousand Germans came to Halifax at the invitation of the British government; but as they neither spoke English, nor knew much of English habits, a separate colony was selected for them at Malagash Bay, where they built the town of Lunenburg. Around their

settlement they threw a picket fence, and raised several block-houses. Still they suffered much from the savages ever on the watch. With all their guns and vigilance they felt unsafe. Then some malcontents of their number circulated the rumor that they had not received all the supplies, which the British government had sent for their support. The winter with its deep snow-drifts was on them, and the gloom promoted discontent, which such a story easily fanned into open disturbance. Soldiers were sent from Halifax to seize the ringleaders. But their presence had less effect on the sturdy German, than the conciliatory measures prompted by the keen sagacity of the governor. There was no serious outbreak, and for their forbearance the inhabitants were rewarded, when spring came, with an importation of cattle and a new church.

Governor Lawrence, succeeding Hopson who remained in the province but a few months, was soon engaged in a series of conflicts with the Acadians which ended in their expulsion. These events, with that of the fall of Louisbourg, occupy the three subsequent chapters.

For some time, Governor Lawrence resisted all attempts to establish representative government, but, in 1758, receiving final orders from London, he was induced to call together the first House of Assembly of Nova Scotia. This consisted of twenty-two members, two from Lunenburg, four from Halifax, and sixteen from the rest of the province as one constituency. In 1760, this was changed. Two members were sent from the counties of Lunenburg, Halifax, Annapolis and Kings; two from the townships of Lunenburg, Annapolis, Horton, Cornwallis, Falmouth and Liverpool; and four from the township of Halifax. The members received no pay: the first Speaker was Robert Saunderson.

This redistribution of seats was the outgrowth of Governor Lawrence's immigration policy. The departure of the Acadians left many farms vacant. Several new townships had been surveyed, and to fill these with inhabitants,

settlers were invited from New England. Besides a land grant of one hundred acres to each immigrant with fifty to each of his children, it was agreed that a township, when settled with fifty families, should send two representatives to the House of Assembly. This brought large numbers from Boston, Rhode Island, and Plymouth, to live in the districts of Truro, Minas, Granville, Yarmouth and Parrtown. A number of Irishmen likewise took advantage of these arrangements.

In the early part of Lawrence's rule, the Indians had made havoc among the people of Dartmouth, seizing them while they wrought in the woods, and bearing them off to their dens for torture. Even Halifax, with its police and bands of soldiers, was unequal to the task of saving the farmers on its outskirts from their cruelty. At length, the savages lost their friends the Acadians. Then the cunning Micmac chief, bedecked in his best blanket and surrounded with his sachems, appeared before the governor, to subscribe to terms of peace and friendship. His humility was met half-way: the hatchet was buried amid much ceremony and congratulation. The French and their bribes of ammunition and provisions were forgotten in the blandishments of the English and the glitter of their presents: the province was again at rest from the terror of the scalping-knife.

Major Lawrence was one of the few governors of Nova Scotia who died while in the exercise of power. Taking cold as he acted the duty of host at a ball in Government House, he fell a victim to congestion of the lungs after a week's illness. His grave, with the monument which crowns it in St. Paul's churchyard, Halifax, forms the obelisk which leads us to think of the turn in the tide of progress,—the inauguration of a better order of things for the Maritime Provinces.

CHAPTER IV.

THE TROUBLES AT THE ISTHMUS.

Joseph De Loutre.	Fort Lawrence.
The Boundary question.	The siege.
Fort Beausejour.	De Loutre's escape.

THE story of Joseph De Loutre and his evil counsels with the Acadians and Indians is so intimately connected with the narrative of events at the Isthmus of Chiegnecto and their subsequent effect, that for the study of the one, we must mention the other. Sent out from France as a missionary, De Loutre was directed from Quebec to Nova Scotia, to labour among the Acadian villages and the wigwams of the natives. But as much the politician as the priest, he sometimes, in his zeal for France, overstepped the limits of his ecclesiastical duties, receiving occasionally a reprimand for it from his superior in Canada. Shortly before the siege of Louisbourg, he is seen, for the first time, with a crowd of his dark converts, making an unsuccessful attack on Annapolis. In the district around Beaubassin, where were his head-quarters, he did every thing to keep the Acadians from taking the oath of allegiance; while his distribution among the native chiefs of fire-arms, ammunition and presents, obtained secretly from the French government, kept the whole province in a state of alarm and excitement. To outwit and annoy the English was his principal plan for doing good to the French cause and the Acadians. On the one hand by building churches, and assisting his own people to erect dykes and save meadow land from the sea; on the other, by pirating English vessels and sending crowds of stealthy savages to outrage Halifax; at one time, establishing communication overland between St. John and Shediac; at another, intercepting dispatches between Louisbourg and Annapolis and rendering the

road unsafe, he truly spun for himself a history made up of items strange in their contradiction. From 1737 to 1755, he was the greatest enemy to the peace of Nova Scotia and its rulers.

As the boundary-line between the British and French possessions remained undetermined for many years after 1713, the French, by bringing settlers of their own country and tongue across the Bay of Fundy to St. John, seemed to press a claim that the Isthmus of Chiegnecto was the natural limit to the jurisdiction of the Nova Scotian governors. More than one French ruler, driven from Annapolis, had retired to the St. John, where, after inviting Acadians from the opposite side of the bay to live under his protection, he deemed himself again a satrap on French ground. But as the Acadians at first had shown towards Cornwallis a friendly spirit, little attention was given to these movements, until De Loutre, in the restlessness of his ambitious designs, induced La Corne, the commander of a small force from Quebec, to pass from Shediac to Bay Verte, and erect a fort at the head of Beaubassin. This action was all the more aggravating, as it occurred at a time when commissioners were appointed to consider the boundary difficulty, and in the face of an agreement signed by the French, forbidding the erection of a fort on the St. John or at any point on that side of the bay, until the commissioners had made their report.

Near the mouth of the little river Missiquash, now the line of separation between the two border counties at the Isthmus, lay the spot, which in 1755 became the scene of conflict for a limit to Nova Scotia. On the ridge to the west of this stream and east of the site on which Sackville now stands, at an advantageous position specially selected by the priest De Loutre, the French erected a small but strong pentagonal fort, with its five bastions and twenty guns overlooking the road which led across the little bridge to the village of Beaubassin. This was *Fort Beausejour*. It stood about two miles from the village; and

with its outposts at the bridge and Bay Verte, formed the strong guard of the eastern side of the Isthmus.

To check this aggressive activity, Major Lawrence was sent from Halifax with four hundred men. But, as this force was too small to drive the enemy from their ground, he retired until reinforced. In the meanwhile the village was deserted by its inhabitants, who had been frightened into this act by De Loutre, and his peremptory orders to burn their church and houses. On returning, the English passed through the ruined village, and, a little to the north, established a rude fort in which to spend the winter. This was *Fort Lawrence.* The country had previously been inundated through the foolish behaviour of Lawrence's men, who, in their ignorance destroyed the dykes, which was their only protection from the high tides of the bay.

But for De Loutre and his power among the Indians to encourage mischief, there might have been peace. As it was, nothing was done until Vergor, in 1754, was sent from Canada as commandant of Beausejour. At this time there were about fifteen hundred people around its neighbourhood.

In the following spring, Colonel Monckton with two thousand men from Boston arrived at Fort Lawrence, sent thither for the purpose of crushing out everything in the form of French military power. The contest for the Isthmus then began in earnest. By the advice and influence of De Loutre, Vergor called in the Acadians able to bear arms, from Minas, Shepody and Petitcodiac. These, as volunteers, were stationed at the bridge over the Missiquash. But as an outpost they were worse than useless; for, easily defeated by the English, they retreated to the fort, bearing their terror with them. When the bridge was taken, the English passed across, and took up a commanding position a mile north of Beausejour and on the same ridge. For four days the batteries roared on both sides. Vergor held his ground valiantly, and poured a steady fire upon the besiegers from the corners of his

pentagon fortress. On his part there was no desire to submit. But terror seized the evil counsellor, De Loutre, when he saw a large shell burst inside the fort, with damage to the principal building and death to two officers and a soldier. A proposal to capitulate was discussed by the officers. They voted for a continuance of the siege. But the report from the Governor of Louisbourg, showing his powerlessness to send assistance, spread through the garrison, and led to the desertion of some and the outcry of others. The commandant was forced to surrender. The terms offered by the besiegers were honourable; the soldiers of the garrison were to be allowed to depart to Louisbourg, on giving a promise not to bear arms against England or her colonies for six months. Fort Beausejour became Fort Cumberland.

De Loutre, in disguise, escaped over the ramparts while the negotiations for peace were pending, and proceeded to the St. John. On the approach of the English to the place of his retreat, and its subsequent desertion by his countrymen, he went to Quebec, where, chagrined at the plainly expressed displeasure of the Archbishop, he took ship for his native country. On the way, his vessel was captured by a British cruiser and taken to England, when being recognized as a public offender, he was sent a prisoner for eight years to Jersey, one of the Channel Islands.

But more remarkable events than this sprung from the struggle at Beaubassin and the Isthmus, in the forced exile of the Acadians, and the overthrow of French power in Cape Breton.

CHAPTER V.

THE EXPULSION OF THE ACADIANS.

Grand Pre.
Colonel Winslow.
The orders.
Destruction and exile.

When Governor Cornwallis established his government at Halifax, deputies from the various Acadian districts appeared before him, to learn how far their interests were to be studied under the new *regime*. The principal of these districts were three in number, situated respectively at the Isthmus, along the Annapolis River, and to the south of Minas Basin. The last, with its 'beautiful village of Grand Pré,' was by far the most important in point of population and agricultural progress. Here patience, and industry, and family peace, combined with primitive tastes and pastimes, made up an eclogue in real life, to be reproduced by Raynal in his prose and Longfellow in his verse. This was Evangeline's birth-place. Here the forest primeval stood protecting the long line of farms by the shore with their meadows, and dykes and marshes; and there it encircled the village, with its church, its school and smithy, the centre of a throng on Sundays and market days, to bow the head in solemn worship or to ease the heart in harmless gossip. Here there was loyalty to France, stubborn yet not oppressive, a loyalty which might have been endured, had not the demon of political intrigue urged it to resist the power that sought the common good. The oath of allegiance was the stumbling-block to these simple Acadian farmers. It was natural for men, who had fought for France, to think it cowardice for them to renounce French rule. But before the trouble at the Isthmus arose, death had removed many of the pioneers. The thought had become only a silly prejudice. At first they refused to take the oath in any form; but this, Paul Mascarene, in his amiable policy, toned down

to nominal submission. Then they demanded from Cornwallis the privilege of subscribing to a special oath, exempting them from the duty of bearing arms in Britain's wars. This was beyond his power to grant. His instructions were to treat them in all respects as British subjects, when they had sworn allegiance in the usual manner. Then they sued for liberty to sell their lands, with the prospect of leaving the country. This, viewed as an empty threat, was refused. But by this time, De Loutre was at work. The spirit of revenge was abroad. The farmer left his plough, the shepherd his herd. . o clean the locks of their muskets, either to be used by themselves, or by the Indians sent to scalp the inhabitants of an English settlement. Outrage followed outrage, until the evil concentrated at Beausejour. It became evident to Governor Lawrence at Halifax, that to maintain peace in Nova Scotia the Acadians must be expelled. Twice they had the opportunity to submit, after the reduction of the force at the Isthmus; twice the deputies rejected the terms, refusing to take the oath themselves, though little thinking how soon their stubborn conduct would involve hundreds of innocent women and children in misery and want. The eclogue of Grand Pré was near its sad end.

When the troops from Boston arrived in the Bay of Fundy, one section, by far the larger, went to Fort Lawrence under Colonel Monckton; another to Minas under Colonel Winslow. Major Handfield was in command at Annapolis. To these three, Governor Lawrence sent his instructions, revealing a plan for the removal of all Acadian families to the neighbouring colonies, and the desolation of their homes. Winslow's task was the bitterest. Those who lived round Cumberland and Annapolis were warned of the misfortune, and fled to the woods. At Grand Pré, all was peace when the order came. The harvest was yellow in the fields, and a number of busy sickles were cutting it down, a number of busy hands carrying it into the barns, when notice was given by written circular that all the inhabitants of Minas

were required to attend a meeting in the church at Grand Pré, there to hear what Colonel Winslow had to say to them about their allegiance. Nearly two thousand people assembled, for the subject was one of interest.

Winslow in a prepared speech announced his orders, so cruel to them in their bald justice, so full of future anguish to them and theirs. They were told, that their lands, tenements and live stock being forfeited to the Crown of England, they were about to be removed to other lands in the vessels which lay at anchor in the channel. In their amazement, they barely understood the meaning of this. Then Winslow said, that in the spirit of that leniency which Britain had always shown to them, whole families would be permitted to leave in the same ship, taking with them money, valuables, and, if they chose, a convenient quantity of household furniture. This clemency was to them but the bitterness of a woful reality; and, when the soldiers under Winslow's command crowded round them in the exercise of their duty, their hearts died within them at the fate staring them in the face. A few who had kept back from the meeting escaped to the forest, to look on and bemoan the destruction which laid waste "those pleasant farms, of which, nought now but tradition remains." Houses, barns, hay and grain were all consumed, and the cattle removed to the English settlements. No wonder both men and women wept, when, from the decks of the ships that bore them to exile, they saw the smoke and ruin of many years' toil!

During the autumn, the work of expulsion and demolition went on. Over seven thousand in all were removed from the little settlements scattered over the province. A thousand were sent to Boston, where, in their destitution, they became paupers on the state. Five hundred were left in Pennsylvania, where their poverty made them slaves. As many more reached Georgia, from which their sufferings sent them back to Boston thinking to return to Nova Scotia. All over the New England colo-

nies, the same hardships were endured, the same desire for return expressed. But Governor Lawrence, though he knew that many innocent suffered with the guilty, refused to allow them again a foot-hold in his province. A dread of further strife blinded his mercy. A large number of them settled on the St. John and along the bays and rivers of the Gulf coast. Some passed across to St. John Island, and prospered for a time from its fertility. Six hundred were afterwards removed from New York to the West Indies where the climate and pestilence left only a remnant to find their way to the low lands near the mouth of the Mississippi. Altogether the distress, the toil, the poverty of these exiles left a stain on the colonial policy, which as Haliburton says, however some may attempt to justify, all good men have agreed to condemn. The reproach against such heartlessness was bitter, and undoubtedly had much to do with the course of events which led to the fall of Louisbourg: the heartlessness was further aggravated by silly revenge, when even those, who had retired to St. John Island and the north-west, were driven from their retreat by the conquerors of Cape Breton.

The last action against the Acadians was taken in 1762, when the government at Halifax, alarmed at the approach of several French war-ships to Newfoundland, and fearing a revolt, sent one hundred and thirty of them to Massachusetts. There, shelter was denied them: they were forced to return and take up their abode in the township of Clare.

The prosperity of Nova Scotia now advanced with its years. The government assisted the English to re-build the dykes and repair the farms of the exiles. Shipbuilding began at Liverpool. A succession of governors after Colonel Lawrence,—Belcher, Wilmot, Lord Campbell, Legge and Parr,—followed the train of progress. When Cape Breton, and the country adjoining the River St. John were marked off as counties in 1765, the population of the whole province was nearly twenty thousand, including about three thousand French and Indians.

CHAPTER VI.

THE DESTRUCTION OF LOUISBOURG.

Progress.
Holborne's timidity.
Wolfe lands.
A month's work.
Surrender.
Ruin.

THE British had held Louisbourg for three years, spent in idleness and indifference to the island's improvement, when the negotiations at Aix-la-Chapelle came to an end in 1748. During that time the rumours of the movements of the French who threatened to retake the place, (first by D'Anville's fleet and second by a squadron which was destroyed off the coast of Spain,) kept the garrison in a state of anxiety. Commodore Knowles had been appointed governor, but his unpopularity with the soldiers promoted petty troubles which prevented him from attending to aught but military affairs. The policy which founded Halifax had not yet been developed in Cape Breton.

For the eight years after this treaty, during which Cape Breton was held by the French,—much to the chagrin of the New Englanders, who had fought so bravely for it and its capital—great progress was made. The population increased, trade prospered, and small settlements, for the first time, began to peep out from the forest near the Bras d'Or and along the coasts. Sydney, St. Peter's, and Arichat, as fishing stations, gave employment to thousands of men, while Louisbourg as protector of the whole island, added to its strength, by a new line of forts along Gabarus Bay, and a large garrison from France. In 1756, when war was again declared between France and England, there were nearly ten thousand men able to bear arms in the capital alone,—a fact, which, when made to the British and New England troops assembled at Halifax, prevented their commander, Admi-

ral Holborne, from prosecuting a siege. Twice he passed the mouth of the harbour with his fleet of twenty ships, until, overtaken by a storm, he was driven back to England, with some of his vessels shattered. Before leaving, he made the report that eleven ships of war were within the harbour, all lying ready to protect the stronghold.

These timid attempts were but the premonition of a greater, which, in the second capture of Louisbourg, paved the way for its final demolition.

On the second of June, 1758, a fleet of one hundred and fifty vessels, and an army of fourteen thousand regular troops arrived at Gabarus Bay, the one commanded by Admiral Boscawen, the other by General Amherst. Second in command and holding equal positions, were Generals Wolfe, Whitmore, and Lawrence, each in charge of a brigade by the special appointment of William Pitt, Prime Minister of England, who was anxious for the success of the expedition.

The danger of landing, increased at this time by the fire from a line of redoubts on the shore, and the surf of a nine days' storm, was overcome through a mistaken order. General Wolfe, whose after fate shed glory on the Plains of Abraham, was the first to move his division in boats towards a creek called Freshwater Cove; but seeing the great breakers dashing themselves on the rugged beach, and anxious to save his men for better weather, he ordered a retreat. In the confusion, the men in the leading boats thought they were ordered to advance, and pushing their galleys under a rocky ledge left undefended by the enemy, they leaped into the surf, and clambered up the cliff, to be followed by Wolfe, when he saw them safe on the high shore. Then the division formed, drove the French from their redoubts to the gates of the city, and seized their guns and ammunition, losing, however, fifty men killed and as many wounded. The firing from the city walls showed General Amherst where to fix his camp beyond the range of the guns.

The plan of action, on the part of the English, was one

throughout,—to guard the entrance of the harbour with the ships, and to form a ring of small batteries, drawing nearer and nearer to the city as the siege continued. For two months, Louisbourg writhed in this strangling process.

General Wolfe, with two thousand men, took up a position at the Lighthouse Point, and there setting up a a strong battery, soon silenced the French guns on the island. Then he passed round to the southern arm of the harbour, whence he drove a large body of French back to the ramparts, and where he erected another battery, greatly to the destruction of the houses and shipping. A slight advantage was gained by the besieged, when attacking one of the English posts; but this was nothing to the disasters which afterwards fell upon them.

While the death-grip of the circle of English forts was tightening round the centre of the French resources, the fleet outside, ever on the watch, captured two of the ships. This loss, with three that were burned, two that escaped under cover of a fog and sank off the island, left the city ill-protected on that side. The gloom of despair hung over the town. Governor Drucour offered to capitulate; but the English refused terms which reserved to his garrison an honourable retreat, and threatened a ruinous attack by land and sea. The Frenchman, in his courage, turned to his guns to answer the threat, when a petition from the citizens was presented, beseeching him to surrender and thereby save the shedding of more blood. This he did on the twenty-sixth of July, 1758, and by his action gave to Britain the possession of Cape Breton, five thousand prisoners of war, nearly three hundred pieces of ordnance, and a large quantity of naval and military stores.

The ruin of Jerusalem, after the siege of Titus, was that of Louisbourg after 1758. The British, fearing that it might again become an instrument in the hands of France to do ill to American commerce, ordered it to be razed

to the ground. Passing across the loamy moss of the little graveyard at the inner base of Point Rochfort, with here and there a human bone, the splinter of a wooden cross, or a rough stone looking through the dark soil, what heart will fail to think tenderly of those who lie there, so hurriedly buried in the hour of misfortune or triumph, so strangely foreshadowing by the mingling of their dust, the peace which now prevails between French and English, in Acadia united to Canada!

CHAPTER VII.

ACADIA BEYOND THE ISTHMUS.

St. John Island.
First trade.
Lord Rollo.
Townships.
Bay Chaleur.
Miramichi.
Wolfe's duty.
Monckton at St. John.
Admiral Walker.
St. John's retaken.

IMMEDIATELY after the surrender of Louisbourg, General Amherst, in preparing for the siege of Quebec, despatched three separate detachments of his army to subdue the districts around Nova Scotia, which the French still claimed as their own. The history of these districts—St. John Island, Miramichi, and St. John River—now demands attention.

The discovery of **St. John Island**, in its uncertainty, gave rise to many disputes between the French and English in their treaty-making. Some said it had been discovered by Cabot; others, that the Frenchman, Verazzani was the first to set foot on it, and Champlain the first to give it its name. One thing is certain, that nothing was done to make it a place of permanent residence for Europeans, until Sieur Doublet, a French naval officer, received a grant of it in 1663. Under his direction, a number of fishermen raised huts for their winter quarters at various points on the coast, expecting to drain a livelihood from the gulf-fisheries. These were further increased by several families, who, dissatisfied with English rule on the peninsula of Nova Scotia, were glad to experiment on land which, in its red colour, had a look of fertility. The expulsion of the Acadians from Nova Scotia also added hundreds to the island's population.

The profitable market for cattle and corn, at the garrison towns of Quebec and Louisbourg, was the making of the island as a farming centre. When Pepperell laid violent hands on Cape Breton's capital, the eight hundred settlers

on St. John were disturbed by the misfortune, which lost for them half their profits; but as they were left unmolested on their farms, and had only to wait a few years until Cape Breton was restored to the French, they did not suffer much from the turn of trade. Till 1758, progress continued in a steady pace. On the more fertile spots the farmers strove hard to grow rich, and where these were joined by the busy fishermen, a hamlet with its little church was sure to raise its head. The island was ruled by the Governor of Fort Le Joie, (near the site of Charlottetown,) where with his band of sixty men and Indian allies, he kept the English at a safe distance, secretly inviting the co-operation of French desperadoes, and others obnoxious to the English government.

When Louisbourg fell a second time into English hands, Lord Rollo was commissioned by General Amherst to invade St. John Island with a body of men, comprising a whole regiment and part of another. There he found over four thousand inhabitants, with evident marks of their industry in the large flocks of sheep and oxen and well filled barns. The people made little or no resistance. Fort Le Joie became an easy prey to the English. In the governor's house, Lord Rollo saw hung around the walls, long rows of scalps, which, he was told, were the trophies of Indians in their ravages among the English of Nova Scotia. This was made part of the excuse for destroying the fortifications.

The capture of Fort Le Joie placed the whole island at the disposal of the English, though without a population; for crowds of the inhabitants, detesting English masters or fearing expulsion, hurried from their farms, and passed across to the lands near Gaspé and the mouth of the St. Lawrence. Only one hundred and fifty people were on the island, when, along with Cape Breton, it was annexed to the government of Nova Scotia in 1763.

Colonel Wilmot was Governor of Nova Scotia when the order for this annexation was made. Before issuing any land grants, he employed Captain Holland to undertake a

survey of the island. Then the Earl of Egmont petitioned the king for a grant of the whole, with the intention of cutting it up into districts as feudal baronies. Both plan and petition were rejected. Other schemes for its settlement suffered the same fate. At last, in 1767, after several lots had been reserved for officers and others having a claim upon the government, the partition into sixty-seven townships of twenty thousand acres each was ordered by the king, with the provision that those who were fortunate in gaining one of these by lottery, should place a certain number of settlers within its bounds before the end of ten years. This was the origin of an absentee ownership and quit rents, which have caused so much trouble to the colony.

Along the shores of **Bay Chaleur,** a number of French villages had their origin in the misfortune of Nicholas Denys, who, when driven from Cape Breton through the influence of his rival and enemy, La Giraudiere, placed his chief station at the mouth of the Nepisiguit. This, as he himself says, was fortified by four bastions and six guns; and here in retirement, he spent much of his time in cultivating his vegetable garden and orchard of apples and pears. The excellent fishing to be found off Miscou and Caraquet induced others to settle near his fort; while his son Richard explored further to the south, entered the Miramichi River, and, obtaining a grant of fifteen leagues square from the Governor of Quebec, encouraged others of his countrymen to take up their abode in that district. Like the settlements on St. John Island, these on the Miramichi and Bay Chaleur were enlarged by the arrival of Acadians from Nova Scotia.

To destroy all these places, and to disperse or carry away their inhabitants was a duty laid upon General Wolfe, before he prepared to pass with his three regiments to Quebec. It was an ignoble path towards a glorious fate. Suddenly but reluctantly was it performed. Stores of fish and provisions were taken or destroyed. The

people were driven to the woods, and the torch applied to their dwellings. As Wolfe, in his report, said,—they did a great deal of mischief, spread the terror of the king's arms, but added nothing to their reputation.

After the siege of Beausejour, the French retreated to the **St. John River,** where, under the supervision of Boisherbert, they repaired the fort at the mouth of the river, and established themselves on farms as far as St. Ann's. Their presence, so near, was full of danger to Nova Scotia; and what Wolfe did with the settlements on the Bay Chaleur, Colonel Monckton was ordered to do on the Bay of Fundy. With two regiments, he sailed to the mouth of the river, where he found that all the inhabitants, advised of his approach, had escaped to the forest or shut themselves up in Fort Latour. The place was taken by assault at the expense of forty lives. Some tried to escape in boats across the harbour, but were swamped by the shot from the invaders' guns. Three hundred men were taken prisoners.

With the intent to make here a permanent station for the English, Monckton repaired the fortifications and proceeded to build barracks for three hundred men. He gave it its new name, Fort Frederick. On the heights opposite stood the block-house, which rose as an outlook for the whole harbour, and a check to the Indians and French raiders on that side. Colonel Arbuthnot was left in charge. Six years after, the English sought shelter here, when Simonds, White and Peabody, in their courage as pioneers, paved the way for the coming of the Loyalists.

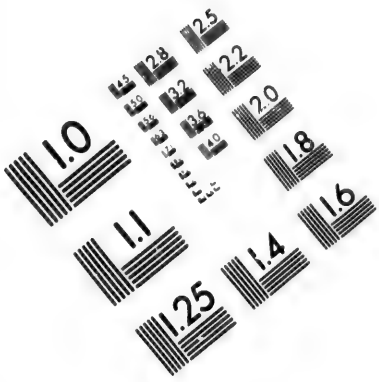
Newfoundland, though never considered as a part of Acadia in the treaties between France and England, was, for many years after the Treaty of Utrecht, nominally under the government of Nova Scotia. Previous to this, the French at Placentia, having received assistance from the Governor of Quebec, spread themselves over the island, and ruled as owners of all the forts and settlements save Carbonear. Two admirals had been charged to dislodge them from their stronghold, Placentia; the last of

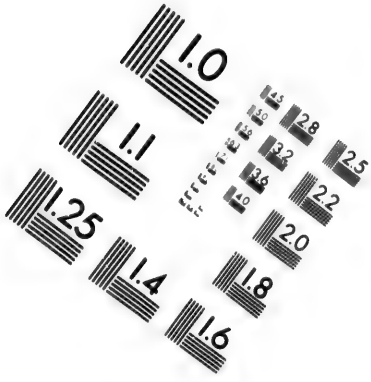
whom, (like Caligula when he subdued Britain by looking at it from Gaul,) ventured no further than Spanish Bay, where he tied a rough board to a tree, bearing the Latin report of a bloodless conquest, won over enemies he never saw. The wits of London did not suffer such silly conduct to escape unpunished,—for weeks, the name of Admiral Walker was the object of a nation's mirth, and his deeds among the French of America, the plot of squibs in verse and prose. There was no time for another effort to be made to wipe out this disgrace, for in 1713, Newfoundland was given back to England.

In 1728, Captain Osborne became Newfoundland's first governor. The long reign of the *fishing admirals* had been brought to a close, though not without opposition. The more the island prospered, the less were the traders' profits; and of course these, in their selfishness, ranked any plan to improve the colony as an iniquity. But this did not prevent the new governor from dividing the island into districts for an increase by immigration, or from organizing another system of government.

A fifty years' peace led the islanders to forget the necessities of defence. In 1761, they had only one vessel, an armed merchantman, to guard the approach to St. John's. The forts of that place had been allowed to decay in the hands of a very small garrison. In 1762, Count Haussonville surprised this neglect, when he entered the harbour, and took the capital after an easy siege. By repairing the fortifications and expending money on barracks, he showed to the citizens of St. John's that his was not a chance visit. Governor Graves sent for aid to Halifax. That city had already been warned of the Frenchman's arrival, and in alarm, partly needless, had sent news of the invasion to General Amherst, who was then in Canada. Troops were immediately despatched from Quebec, to join Lord Colville's fleet lying in Halifax harbour. On arriving at St. John's, the soldiers drove the French to their ships. The merchants for a moment awoke from their dream of one-sided gain, and granted

supplies. All the inhabitants, moved by this patriotism, stood together as one man, and by their united action won back Newfoundland; though, much to their regret, the French escaped the vigilance of Lord Colville, whose ships lay outside the harbour. Next year, the Treaty of Paris restored peace to all the colonies in British America.





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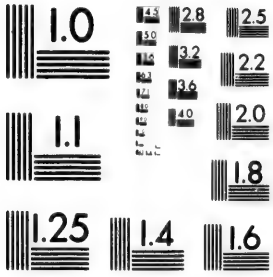

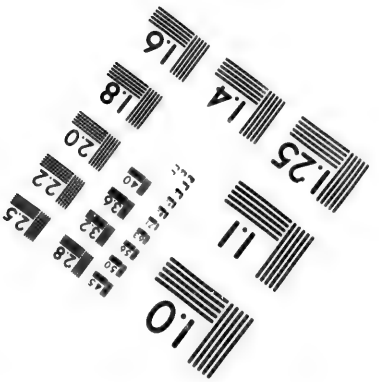

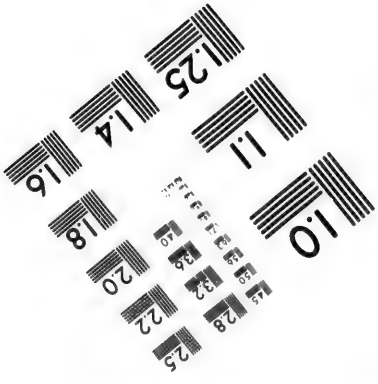

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CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY DURING THE SECOND PERIOD.

In the report which Paul Mascarene wrote for the British Board of Trade, special mention is made of the settlements on or near the Bay of Fundy. The appearance of old **Annapolis** with its dyked farms, rich without manure,—with its fine meadows, its fields of wheat, rye and oats, and its tidy kitchen gardens,—with its garrison life, rendered bearable by the merry social gatherings of its three hundred families, makes up a picture which, with a little romance to heighten its colour, might rival the pleasant imagery of Longfellow that so often stirs up compassion for the unfortunates of Grand Pre. Along the river, little had been done to dig the wealth from the rich deposits, which, with the industry of a later period, has made the whole valley a garden. Indeed the Acadians of Annapolis River, by spending much of their time in fruitless skirmishes with their English neighbours, were seldom beyond the dread of starvation. At **Chiegnecto** there was both enterprise and wealth,—enterprise in the building of expensive aboideaux on the rivers, and in the large exports of hay, oats and cattle to Louisbourg,—wealth in the coal mines and the large tracts of meadow land. At the head of Cobequid Bay, a little community of fifty families farmed and fished, and there hid for a season from the order to take the English oath of allegiance. At **Canso** fortune worked by lottery: there, wealth was as easily lost as made; a good season in the cod-fishing, then as now, made the fisherman forget his woes; a bad one wrought for him ruin and bondage. There are two sides to the story of Acadian prosperity and innocence, as it was witnessed around the **Basin of Minas**. The frugality and comfort of these simple-hearted farmers, their large flocks of sheep and oxen roaming over the well-cultivated farms, their fruitful crops raised by the hard hand of industry, their neat dwellings, but above all, their piety and simple manners, their benevolence and uprightness, give life and interest to the chapter over which we love to ponder. Those who write of them as idlers, quarrelsome, living in the squalid misery of wretched wooden structures, yet hoarding up gold for its own sake, undertake a mighty task in trying to overturn the prejudice of the world's readers. They were not all saints because they were all exiled: neither were they all bad because they refused to take an oath they abhorred. Their punishment was the effect of stubbornness, not of crime.

The story of **Louisbourg's** trade and wealth, in its palmy days, is still the cause of regret for its destruction. It was built for the protection of the fisheries, and though the expense of its fortifications was great, the revenue from the fish trade made it a profitable outlay. With the West Indies and New England there was, for many years, a considerable traffic: from the former came, in return for fish, sugar, tobacco, coffee: from the latter, fruit, vegetables, oats, shingles and bricks. It was also the centre of commerce between Europe and Canada, the furs of the St. Lawrence country being there ex-

changed for the manufactured goods of England and France. Its government was purely military, with the governor at the head of the Supreme Court, which tried soldiers and citizens alike. There was also an Admiralty Court for the prevention of smuggling, as well as an Inferior Court for the punishment of minor offences reported by the police. The religion of the colony was regulated by missionaries from Quebec. There were hospitals under the care of six friars, schools under the superintendence of nuns. There were handsome buildings, busy streets, markets and wharfs on which the merchant jostled the idling soldier and drove a hard bargain with the poor fisherman. Long lines of storehouses, holding the wealth of the fishing season or its profits in European goods, stood within and without the walls; and of all this only a few mounds of rubbish remain within the line of its glacis and ditch.

The English immigrants, who came to take up the farms of the Acadians at Minas, were spread through the three new townships of Horton, Cornwallis and Falmouth. These were brought within the reach of Halifax in a day's journey, by the good carriage road which the troops made. With the help of some Acadians the dykes were repaired, and, in a short time, a supply of corn and hay enough for self-support was raised. Many of the new settlers brought with them a little money; those, who were poor, received aid from the governor. The township of Liverpool was the most rapid in growth. At the time of Belcher's report to the Board of Trade, its people had raised large quantities of hay, roots, and vegetables, had erected a saw mill and one to grind corn, and were engaged in building vessels for the fishing, in which they had already sixteen schooners employed. Annapolis, Granville, Chester and Dublin, in English hands, were then beginning a new and cheering history of progress.

On the **St. John River**, French enterprise grouped itself round the three principal forts, Latour, Jemseg, and Nashwaak. There, very little time was devoted to agriculture: around them were a few acres producing vegetables and a small quantity of oats. The settlement of the marsh-lands around Cumberland and Sackville by English from Boston, led others to the mouth of the St. John, and up its banks as far as Maugerville. But even there, the fisheries and the fur-trade were the chief attraction.

The early colonization of **Newfoundland** was a struggle between selfishness and progress. Its population comprised two classes—the permanent settlers, and the fishing traders. The latter had no personal interest in the internal improvement of the island, and hence scorned the idea of any form of constitutional rule: they were content, as long as they possessed a free fishing privilege and a spot on the beach for drying their fish, or preparing the oil from the seal. After Kirke's time, criminals were sent to England for trial. Then extraordinary powers were given to the *fishing admirals*. The first captain who entered a harbour was the umpire of all complaints in that district for the year; the second was vice-admiral; and the third, rear-admiral. These three men gave final decisions in all disputes between the colonists and the fish-merchants. In vain, the

former groaned under their partiality and injustice. When they petitioned for a governor, the merchants in their strength crushed the movement. Even in England, a law was passed dissuading emigrants from going to Newfoundland. Still, the population increased, sailors who came as fishermen remained as settlers for the next year's fishing, and finally bought a piece of land and built a house for their winter's rest. At length brighter days came. Lord Beauclerk, the commander of a naval force which spent a season near the island, saw all the evils of admiral-rule. On his return to England, he advised the appointment of a governor in the person of Henry Osborne. There were then eight thousand people on the island, with nearly as many more who spent the summer months only.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES AND EXPLANATIONS.

Sir William Phips was born in humble circumstances at the English station of Pemaquid, 1651. He was raised to affluence by recovering a large treasure from a ship, which had been destroyed near San Domingo. When in England he was knighted, and sent back to make an unsuccessful attack on Quebec. In the latter years of his life, he held the governorship of Massachusetts.

Baron St. Castine was a French nobleman, who came to Canada in 1665, with a regiment of soldiers. Making a settlement for himself at Penobscot, he married a daughter of the chief of the Abenaquis tribe; and by a distribution of presents among his dark relations and friends, he won their hearts, and used them in war for his own purpose. Much of the wealth which he gained from the fur-trade, he employed in organising raids against the English.

Francis Nicholson, born in New England, was successively Governor of New York, Virginia, and Maryland, with the rank of Colonel. After his siege of Port Royal, he went to England, urging the English government to equip a fleet for the invasion of Canada. Disaster in the Gulf of St. Lawrence drove this fleet back to Cape Breton, to the lasting disgrace of Admiral Walker, who was first in command. Nicholson escaped the odium of this failure, and was appointed Governor of Nova Scotia.

Paul Mascarene was a Frenchman by birth. His father being a Huguenot, the revocation of the edict of Nantes drove the family to Geneva, whence young Mascarene departed to England, to be naturalized and appointed to a lieutenancy in the division of troops sent to Nova Scotia. In succession he was member of the Provincial Council, Colonel in military rank, and Governor. After the arrival of Cornwallis, he retired to Boston, where he died in 1760.

William Shirley was an English lawyer, who went to New England in 1733. Eight years after, he became Governor of Massachusetts, and took a prominent part in the siege of Fort Niagara.

By him was first planned the expedition against Louisbourg. He was employed as a member of the Commission appointed to determine the boundary line. Died in 1771.

Sir William Pepperell, born in 1696, was a wealthy merchant of New England and a Colonel of Militia. He was in his forty-ninth year when he first entered active service against Louisbourg, guided only by his experience in crushing Indian invasions. When honoured by the king as a baronet, he retired to his beautiful residence at Kittery Point, where he died.

Jonathan Belcher, son of the Governor of Massachusetts, graduated at Harvard College, and completed his studies as a lawyer in England. In 1754, he was appointed Chief Justice of Nova Scotia, and was one of the four members of the Council which decided to expel the Acadians. Through his agitation, the first House of Assembly was organised. At the death of Governor Lawrence he became administrator.

Robert Monckton was the son of Viscount Galway, and reached New England as Colonel in the army. After subduing the French at Beausejour, he followed the fortunes of Wolfe to Louisbourg and Canada. In 1764 he made a successful raid upon Martinique.

Lord Amherst, born in England, was forty-one years of age when sent with an English force to take Louisbourg. After the capture of Quebec, he was appointed Major-General and Governor of Virginia, but was obliged to resign on account of his resistance to the Stamp Act. Subsequently he received the governorship of Guernsey, became Baron Amherst, and died as Commander-in-chief in 1797.

James Wolfe, the hero of Louisbourg, was the son of one of Marlborough's officers, born in the county of Kent, England, in 1727. He joined the army in his thirteenth year, and was present at the battles of Falkirk and Culloden in Scotland. For four years he was stationed at Stirling in charge of a regiment. His advice in connection with the expedition against Rochefort in 1757, was unheeded, and thus he escaped the blame of its failure. Pitt, as his friend, sent him to Cape Breton. His success led to his appointment as Major-General in the campaign against Quebec. There, on the Plains of Abraham, with the shout of victory around him, he breathed his last in the words—"Now God be praised, I die in peace!"

The Treaty of Ryswick, in 1697, formed the conclusion to the wars between France and England during the reign of William III. According to its terms, it was agreed that neither of the monarchs should countenance conspiracies against the other, that the possessions lost during the war should be restored, and that free trade should be promoted.

The Spanish Succession was divided between the grandson of Louis XIV. and the Archduke Charles. Louis, anxious to see his relation on the Spanish throne, resisted the grand alliance of Germany, Holland and Britain (which supported the claims of the

Archduke,) and their splendid armies under Churchill, Duke of Marlborough. During the war, Gibraltar fell into English hands, and a series of victories raised Marlborough to the highest honours.

The Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, was the end of the war of the Spanish Succession. By it, Louis agreed to recognise the Brunswick House as the royal family of Britain, to discard the Pretender and his cause, and to leave the British in possession of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Hudson Bay.

The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, closed the struggle among the powers of Europe, connected with the succession of Maria Theresa of Austria to her father's possessions. According to it, Cape Breton was given to France, and Madras to England; Austria to Maria Theresa, Parma to Don Philip, and England to the House of Hanover. The boundary between the colonies of the several powers was to be settled by a Commission.

The Treaty of Paris, in 1763, ended the Seven Years' War with Britain against France and Spain. By it, France ceded to England Canada, Nova Scotia and Cape Breton; the French, however, to have the right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, and the fishing stations of St. Pierre and Miquelon. Spain gave up Florida, and France surrendered four islands in the West Indies. Other possessions changed hands. The French in America were to be allowed free exercise of their religion, or liberty to leave the country within eighteen months.

PRINCIPAL DATES—SECOND PERIOD.

Phips before Port Royal,	1690	D'Anville's failure,	1746
The siege of Nashwaak,	1696	Halifax founded,	1749
Treaty of Ryswick,	1697	Beausejour built,	1750
Nicholson at Port Royal,	1710	Capture of Beausejour,	1755
P't Royal becomes Annapolis,	1710	Expulsion of Acadians,	1755
Treaty of Utrecht	1713	Louisbourg's fall,	1758
Louisbourg founded,	1713	Haussonville at St. John's,	1762
Louisbourg's first siege,	1745	Treaty of Paris,	1763

THIRD PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.

THE LOYALISTS.

The Stamp Act.	Miramichi.
New England factions.	Cape Breton a county.
War of Independence.	Sydney built.
The Loyalists banished.	Celtic immigration.
Parrtown—St. John.	Patterson's troubles.

THE glory which attended the British arms before Louisbourg and Quebec was but the echo of England's greatness, gained during the Seven Years' War, under the administration of William Pitt, the 'Great Commoner'. In 1760, George III. ascended the throne, the most powerful monarch in the world, with the most talented statesman as his chief adviser; while Louis XV. of France, in despair at his misfortunes, was ready to join an alliance with any of the other European powers, to save himself from disgrace with his people. Seeing his armies defeated in Germany, India, and Canada, Louis at length joined a secret league with Spain against Britain. This combination was known to Pitt, who advised open hostilities with Spain. But an empty exchequer wrought ruin to his plans, and broke up the ministry of which he was leader. Then the reins of government were placed in the hands of the Earl of Bute, who was in power when the war, foretold by Pitt, was suddenly declared by the King of Spain. This was the last stage in the victorious Seven Years' War, closed by the Treaty of Paris in 1763.

To defray part of the enormous expense of this long contest, Mr. Grenville, who had succeeded the Earl of Bute, introduced into parliament a bill recommending that, in America as in England, all receipts for money, deeds, and conveyances should be written on stamped paper, the price of the stamp to be paid to the British government. This, passed without discussion, was the

famous Stamp Act. Great was the excitement, when the news of it reached New England. Indignant majorities in the local parliaments condemned taxation where there was no right to vote; and as the colonists sent no representative to the House of Commons in England, they refused to be taxed by that body. A copy of the Act was publicly burned by a mob. The stamped paper for circulation was seized and destroyed, while the officers appointed to sell it were abused and frightened into obscurity. The law became, in reality, a dead letter.

Other causes than Britain's claim to tax her colonies, were at the root of this resistance. The men of New England were no longer mere toilers on the farm, the forest, or the sea. From Maine to Georgia had arisen a line of communities, whose increasing wealth and culture gave birth to the ambition of framing laws for themselves, and of managing the internal affairs of the colony. In this Boston took the lead, and there the strife between the two political parties waxed loudest. As in Britain, these were called Whigs and Tories. With the latter were indentified the office-holders, who, appointed by the king, were generally succeeded in turn by their sons or relatives, thereby making the highest positions hereditary. This rankled in the minds of the men whose grandfathers had left England to breath a purer air of liberty, untainted by feudalism or the overbearing pride of an aristocracy, pampered with state offices and sinecures. A newspaper war had lasted for many years,—the one side striving to establish the principle of responsible government, and promotion to office by merit; the other supporting a system of feudal tenure which virtually excluded native talent from every position of political trust. The Tories naturally favoured the Stamp Act; but the Whigs, joining the popular voice, denounced it. The bitterness of fifty years was condensed into a few weeks' outburst. The excitement reached England. On a change of ministry, the obnoxious Act was repealed, though the right to tax was still maintained. Then, after

a two years' lull, followed the trouble about the taxed tea. New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston refused it a market, while at Boston a ship load of it was thrown into the sea by a mob. Britain blockaded the port of Boston as a punishment; and the colonists sent an address to the king. But the ears of the ministry were closed against the cry for redress. They thought that a few red-coats, stationed at Boston and the other cities, could keep in subjection a people, who had learned to wield the sword in the colonial wars with the French. This, the mere ignorance of pride, led to open war in 1775, and the Declaration of Independence in 1776; when the great mass of the people were broken up into two parties under the names, Republican and Loyalist. The majority of the Tories, and nearly all the government officials remained firm to British interests.

During the war, as the Republicans prospered, those who favoured the king's cause suffered many indignities. The very name of Loyalist was fraught with danger. Their property was destroyed, and they themselves thrown into improvised prison-houses. Sheriffs were mobbed, judges driven from the Bench, the houses of the wealthy invaded and ransacked. Threats, insults, incendiarism by unruly crowds were followed by legislative enactments, enforcing confiscation, exile, and in some cases, death. The harsh treatment made Loyalists of many, who of their own will would have remained neutral. Twenty-five thousand joined the royal army as volunteers, and as many more fled to the western forests or to Canada and the north.

In Nova Scotia, the Stamp Act and the evils it produced created no ill-feeling towards Britain. The Legislature of Boston sent a circular to Halifax counselling resistance; but there the people, content under British rule to improve their liberal grants of land, made no response.

The war lasted seven years. A proclamation by the Governor of Nova Scotia, condemned all traffic with the 'rebels'; and when the communities at Cobequid and

Cumberland disobeyed, they were punished by being disfranchised. A company of infantry, numbering a thousand, was selected from the provincial militia, and half of it sent to protect Halifax. Near Fort Cumberland, a lawless band stole a British schooner, and sold it, with the valuable stock of provisions on board, to some traders at Machias. Then they cruised, as self-appointed privateers, along the shores of the Bay of Fundy; and entering St. John harbour, frightened the people of Parrtown, burned Fort Frederick with several houses on the other side, and captured a vessel laden with stores for the king's troops in New England. Two French frigates, in the service of the revolutionists, fell upon some English sloops going to Spanish River for coal, and captured one of them, but were hindered from further pillage through the vigilance of the British frigates stationed on the Nova Scotian coast.

Newfoundland and St. John Island suffered most. Newfoundland, like Nova Scotia, had been pressed to unite with the revolted colonies in their demands against Britain. The request was unheeded, and the first Congress retaliated by suspending all importation. As the fishermen had received, for many years, a large part of their supplies from New England, famine fell upon them unprepared. Some of the districts passed the severest ordeal of want and poverty. It was a hard season for all. The harbours being unprotected, the privateers of the enemy ran in and out, capturing vessels even from the wharfs. Disasters at sea deepened the gloom. In one storm three hundred men perished, as they toiled on the deep for food. Indeed, before relief came from Ireland in ship-loads of farm produce, many of the inhabitants were famishing—the island a scene of despair.

Two privateers also visited St. John Island, where the headlands and bays were defended neither by ship nor fort. Charlottetown was plundered, and its governor with two officers taken prisoners,—a reckless act, which gave Washington an opportunity to be gracious in

restoring the property and sending the men back. The captains, who made the arrest, were dismissed from the service.

A tragic event occurred at Lunenburg. The people there had been frequently alarmed by the approach of cruisers from New England. One day an armed sloop of this class ran into the harbour with all sail set. As the villagers from the shore watched its movements, a great explosion tore through its deck, scattering destruction among the crew of one hundred men. Then they learned all from one of the six sailors who swam ashore. The cruiser had been driven into the bay by a British man-of-war; and one of the officers, who had formerly been a seaman in the English navy, dreading the fate of a deserter, had set fire to the powder magazine.

In 1781, Washington laid siege to Yorktown and forced the seven thousand soldiers within its walls to surrender. This was the victory which made the thirteen colonies independent. The war continued for another year in a few skirmishes, but these had no effect, not even to check the persecutions against the Loyalists. Peace was restored by treaty in 1783.

Strange to say, the laws against the Loyalists were not repealed. The peace had been ratified too hastily for justice. In the Northern States, measures were adopted which, in their severity, bore the marks of hatred and revenge. The Loyalists of New York, many of whom had shown superior courage and self-denial in their encounters with the revolutionists, cursed the peace when they heard of it, and in a body of twelve thousand left for Nova Scotia. Others went to Britain, Canada, and the West Indies. Eventually they appealed to the British parliament for relief and compensation. Commissioners, appointed to investigate the losses and claims, spent over sixteen million dollars, which, with annuities, land grants, and official employment, saved many of the refugees from destitution in the countries to which they went, and placed not a few of them in affluent positions.

The largest crowds of these refugees found a home at Annapolis, Chiegnecto, Halifax, and Parrtown. At the first three places, after some inconvenience from their numbers, they quietly mingled with the other inhabitants as industrious citizens: at Parrtown, now St. John, they were obliged to fight the old battle of founding a city.

Nearly ten years had elapsed since five hundred immigrants from Boston arrived in two sloops, to build temporary huts and afterwards dwelling-houses, at the base of the rock lying to the right of the falls at the mouth of the St. John River. They had come at the invitation of Governor Lawrence. In the harbour was excellent fishing, around were fertile spots and heavy lumber tracts; on the islands far above the falls were large quantities of hay for use and exportation, and they found it profitable to remain. In their enterprise, they moved as far up as the Oromocto, where there was a fort to keep the natives in subjection; and one man, bolder than the others, cleared a farm for himself on the flat point, now the site of Fredericton. The whole was included under the name of Sunbury, a county of Nova Scotia.

On the 18th of May, 1783, the ships, carrying the Loyalists from New England, anchored near Navy Island, in sight of the position where once stood De Latour's fort. To the right was the rocky peninsula, then covered with shrubs, scrubby spruce and marsh,—now the abode of thirty thousand people in comfortable homes, who never fail to commemorate the 'Landing of the Loyalists' as a remarkable event in their city's history. They came not all at once; but before the year was out, five thousand had built houses for themselves at some point between Parrtown and St. Ann's. Among them were disbanded soldiers, lawyers, clergymen, merchants, farmers and mechanics, all provided with a grant and guarantee of two years' support, and hopeful to recruit their fallen fortunes. Their industry, as their loyalty, soon left its impress on the shores of St. John harbour and river.

In 1784, Nova Scotia beyond the Bay of Fundy, known

as the county of Sunbury, became a separate province under the name, New Brunswick, in honour of the reigning family in Britain. Thomas Carleton, its first governor, landed at Parrtown on Sunday the 21st of November. Next day he issued his first proclamation, setting forth his prerogative as the king's deputy, and calling upon all the inhabitants to be loyal to the interests of the new colony. He then proceeded to organize a Council of twelve members from among the prominent Loyalists. Two years after, the first House of Assembly of twenty-six members was called together at Parrtown, which by this time had been incorporated under the name of St. John, the first city in Canada governed by a mayor and aldermen. St. John, however, was not long the capital. Some difficulty arising about a site for the Province Buildings, Governor Carleton moved to St. Ann's, changed its name to Fredericton, and established it as the seat of government.

Previous to this, British enterprise had found its way to Richibucto and Miramichi. At the latter place, William Davidson, in spite of the opposition of the natives who voted his death at one of their conventions in 1778, brought out a number of settlers from the old country to hew the lumber and till some of the more fertile patches on the banks of that noble stream. Three years after Jonathan Leavitt, at St. John, had launched the first vessel built in New Brunswick, Davidson finished the first built on the Miramichi. The whole northern district, as the county of Northumberland, sent two representatives to Fredericton, as did the other counties, King's, Queen's, Sunbury, York, Charlotte and Westmoreland.

Thus started New Brunswick on its career as a British colony, its past a strange contrast to its present; yet even at this early date, the contest between the members of its first parliament and first governor, over the appointment of officials, pointing feebly to the later struggle for responsible government, and the abolition of a colonial

system which lost to Britain the allegiance of New England.

The same year, which saw New Brunswick a separate province, brought a special governor for Cape Breton, and great improvements to St. John Island, which had been made a colony independent of the others, fourteen years before. In October, 1763, three years after Governor Lawrence had done so much to people Nova Scotia, Cape Breton was annexed to it as one of its counties. During the five years which intervened between the fall of Louisbourg and this event, several attempts had been made to obtain large grants of land from the Board of Trade. These were unsuccessful; though there was an excellent opportunity to add to the population now reduced to a thousand, and an attraction in the discovery of the coal fields. The first two members for the county—Grant and Townsend—took their seats in 1766, only to have their election challenged and revoked, because they had not received merely the votes of freeholders, but had been elected by universal suffrage. This difficulty was not settled until the arrival of Lord William Campbell, who, with his successor, Governor Francklyn, did something to improve the working of the coal mines, and to introduce a population at Spanish River (Sydney). The *Acadia Company*, organised in London for the improvement of lands in Nova Scotia, applied for a grant of forty thousand acres in Cape Breton; but an objection being made by Mr. Robin and other Jersey fishermen, who had placed establishments at various points in the Gulf, the application was refused.

In 1784, Major Desbarres arrived from England, Lieutenant-Governor of Cape Breton. From Louisbourg, he had followed the fortunes of Wolfe to Quebec, where, on the Plains of Abraham, he saw his gallant master receive his death wound from the defeated French. Up to this time, Louisbourg had been capital; but the new governor, admiring the peninsula near the south arm of Spanish River as an excellent site for a town, built a house for himself there, and called the place, Sydney, in honour of

Lord Sydney, then Colonial Secretary. Desbarres, in a proclamation showing the advantages of the country, presented to settlers the prospect of free provisions for three years, with material for building, and help in clearing land. Over three thousand answered the call—some respectable, others the worst of idlers. The first winter was a hard one, for the provisions ran out, and Nova Scotia refused assistance. Happily for them, a store-ship from Quebec was found at Arichat and taken to Louisbourg, whence its stores were carried on sledges to Sydney. The expense of this was charged to the governor personally; but the debt was too great for him. In England his bills were dishonoured; and he himself was withdrawn. Before his departure, however, he broke down the policy which prohibited the Loyalists from securing a home in Cape Breton; for in 1786, he granted no less than ten thousand acres to one band of them from New Hampshire.

The completion of Captain Holland's survey of St. John Island, was followed by a large influx of population. Settlers came from all parts—Highlanders from Scotland, Loyalists from New England, and Acadians from Nova Scotia. Then began the sturdy toil which has made the island the 'garden of Canada.'

At first Governor Francklyn, of Nova Scotia, was empowered to rent farms for the owners and to make grants; but the people crowded in so fast, that in 1770, they received a governor of their own, in the person of Mr. Walter Patterson. Three years after, the first House of Assembly, consisting of eighteen members, met to assist the governor and his two councils, in adding to the new constitution such laws as the colony specially required.

The immigration which promoted this change demands a passing note. The Celtic chiefs of Scotland, true to the Stuart cause, flocked round the standard of 'Bonnie Prince Charlie' in 1745, and fought their last great battle for him on the field of Culloden. After his defeat, the unfortunate prince fled to France; but as his departure did not produce immediate quiet and contentment among

those who wore the tartan, King George's troops were placed at various stations, to watch the clans in their plots. Still there arose outbursts of disloyalty. At last, the plan of organising several Highland regiments, to join the army abroad, was recommended and speedily adopted, when hundreds of young Celts, glad to gain glory anywhere in their native kilts, left for the continent of Europe, and Canada. Everywhere, they proved the best of British soldiers. Wolfe had them under him at Louisbourg and Quebec, where they were gazetted a set of brave fellows. All through the war they acted the part of loyal men. But peace came in 1763; and hundreds of them were disbanded. Yet they had not travelled thus far from home with their eyes shut. They knew where the best spots for settlement lay, and as the little red island in the Gulf of St. Lawrence had a name for fertility, many of them took farms there. The first to land was a band of Colonel Fraser's regiment. Four years passed, before they could write to their friends at home that they were doing well. Then the ship, *Hector*, arrived at Pictou with farmers from Scotland direct, who had been driven from their homes, to make space for deer forests and sheep walks. More followed. The veterans of Louisbourg and Quebec had made their mark on St. John Island; and their description of the country, when published, encouraged others to set out. The young were glad to go: the aged waited till their sons had found a place of shelter for them, and then sailed to breathe their last Gaelic prayer in the West. It is reported that, in all, twenty-five thousand settled somewhere in the Maritime Provinces.

As the salaries of the governor and the other officials were at first drawn from a fund derived from the quit-rents, the delay in the payment of this tax produced the colony's first great anxiety. In 1781, the sale of the lands of some of those in arrears, though an act far from being unjust, was the beginning of Governor Patterson's unpopular course. From this time, his enemies on the island and in London multiplied, in their combined action to

defame him. Several of the proprietors, with influence enough to gain the ear of Lord Sydney, reported every idle scandal of Charlottetown at the Colonial Office; while one of them, whom the governor had befriended, issued a pamphlet against him. Nor were the members of the Assembly at one with him, when he began to err by meeting injustice with injustice; for when he kept back an order to restore the lands sold, which had been prepared in England for the consideration of the Legislature, he was only saved from disgrace, by declaring the sudden dissolution of the House on two separate occasions. The arrival of a company of Loyalists, specially invited to the island by the governor, increased the number of his friends, and gave him a House more tractable and willing to pass a measure, recognizing as valid the land sales of 1781. But the Act was disallowed, and he himself cited to appear in London to answer the charges against his rule. Colonel Fanning, a doctor of Oxford and a Loyalist soldier, was commissioned to take his place. In a spirit of resistance to the success of his enemies, Patterson held office till spring, when, at the close of a winter's undignified strife with Fanning, he was peremptorily dismissed.

The antagonism between the colonists and the absent proprietors now came into bolder light. In the earlier stage of the contest, the advantage was with the latter, who had a personal interest at court. The Assembly, knowing that many of them had not established one farmhouse on their property, nor had paid a shilling of quitrent, resolved to place the lands of such once more in the king's hands; yet not only was the bill containing this proposal disallowed, but a reduction was made in the amount of taxes, to remain unpaid as before. In this way, for years, the influence of these absentees interfered with the prosperity of the colony.

CHAPTER II.

THE EVENTS OF CHANGE AND PROGRESS.

The two Princes.
The Maroons.
Shannon and Chesapeake.
'Agricola'—Education.
Catholic disabilities.
Barry's expulsion.
Duty on brandy.
Cape Breton.
Chipman a commissioner.
Free trade.
Miramichi Fire.
St. John Island's new name.
Selkirk Settlement.
Smith's tyranny.

We have reached the turning point in the history of the Maritime Provinces, when they began to attract thousands of an industrious population to their coasts, anxious to carry their wealth of lumber, coal, furs, fish, and farm-produce into the world's mart. Saw-mills, with their busy whir, drank in the water of the brook and the waterfall which formerly ran unheeded to the bay, and spun its energy into ship-loads of deals for England and the West Indies. The miner began to burrow in Cape Breton, to supply a market springing up in New England. Roads were built for the first stage-coaches. Between the principal places regular mails were established; that between Halifax and St. John, monthly; between St. John and Fredericton, weekly. The Acadians, who remained or returned, had been driven into the more distant corners of the colony; the Indians had accepted the change of masters; and thus the British settler, unmolested in his labours, did much more to improve his farm when he saw his industry realize a profit for himself and family, not for his enemy. As there was a bright prospect in the arrival of the exiles from New England, so was there encouragement in the events to follow. Nova Scotia with its twenty thousand people, New Brunswick with its six thousand, and St. John Island with its three thousand advanced a stage in their commercial importance, opening up

a course of prosperity, which may yet lead to their re-union as one province in the greater union of all the Canadas.

The presence of two British princes, at this time, encouraged the colonists in their zeal for monarchy—the Duke of Clarence, in 1786, and the Duke of Kent in 1794. The former, who was afterwards crowned King William IV. remained just long enough to witness the good-will of the people of Halifax in a burst of joy and congratulation, and a three weeks' round of amusements. The Duke of Kent, whose daughter still reigns 'our noble Queen,' lived in the country for five years, as Commander-in-chief of the colonial forces, scattering his favours from heart and purse, and giving an aristocratic tone to provincial society. A special favourite was he with those who had been hospitably entertained at the 'Prince's Lodge,' his beautiful country residence near Bedford Basin. There, the princely splendour of his balls and receptions outshone that of Government House.

Meanwhile Nova Scotia was thrown into a state of excitement, by the impeachment of two Judges of the Supreme Court, the election of a new House of Assembly, and the report that a French fleet was at New York preparing to pounce upon Halifax. The Judges were acquitted. Nothing more was heard of the fleet, though the rumour roused the militia in the country, and brought four thousand men to the capital for its protection.

Governor Wentworth had succeeded Governor Parr. The year 1796 witnessed the landing of five hundred Maroons at Halifax. They came from Jamaica, where their fathers had been the negro slaves to the Spaniards, when that island was captured by the British. Though free, they became troublesome under British rule, and on a second serious outbreak were removed to Nova Scotia. There they lived for four years, supported by an annual subsidy from the Jamaica government, until the Governor of Nova Scotia, fearing that at last they would be thrown a burden on that province, induced the British government to send them to Sierra Leone, where a colony of negro Loyalists had already been founded.

Sir George Prevost came to the province in 1808, when Sir John Wentworth retired on a handsome pension voted by the House of Assembly. Sir George remained three years, and then went as governor to Canada, after he had made a tour through Nova Scotia and had laid the foundation stone of the Province Building. In his progress through the country, he found its business little impeded on account of the protective duties of the United States. Commercial intercourse with that power was no absolute necessity to the provincials: they were content to grow wealthy by sending their lumber to Britain, where the market was all their own on account of the high duty on Baltic cargoes.

Sir John Sherbrooke was governor when the American War of 1812 broke out. This quarrel between Britain and the United States was an offshoot of the greater contest, in which an attempt was made to curb the ambition of Napoleon. Between Napoleon's decrees against English commerce, and England's orders to seize all vessels sailing to France from any other than a British port, the ship-owners of the United States had suffered. As a reprisal, Boston, New York, and the other ports were closed against British and colonial vessels. Then the British claimed the right to search for English seamen serving on board American ships. This caused disputes on the sea, and a war of three years.

The alarm of the provinces took shape in the granting of large sums for the defence of the country, the erection of block-houses, and the thorough re-organization of the militia. As Canada was the first point of attack, thither went the regular troops from Halifax, St. John, Sydney and Annapolis, leaving the defences in the hands of the inhabitants. Privateers were subsidized to watch the coasts, and brought in several prizes. While Detroit, at one end of the territory, was obliged to surrender with its large garrison to the British, Eastport and Castine at the other, were taken by the squadron under Sir John Hardy, though the people on either side of the St.

Croix refrained from hostilities according to a mutual agreement. The town at the Bay of Bulls, in Newfoundland, was taken by the French, who were now also at war with Britain. Then took place the memorable naval duel between the *Shannon* and *Chesapeake*, which, as the *Shannon* left Halifax immediately before and returned to it soon after the contest, may rank as a colonial event. Captain Broke, sailing near the entrance of Boston harbour, sent a challenge to the captain of the *Chesapeake* lying within. After some delay, the challenged frigate sailed forth to reply, accompanied by crowds of the citizens of Boston in pleasure boats and schooners, to witness the ruin prepared for the *Shannon*, and to conduct their victorious countrymen back to a banquet already ordered in their behalf. In fifteen minutes the tables were turned on the expectant banqueters. A few broadsides from the *Shannon* cleared the decks of its opponent. Then the British sailors rushed on board and completed the capture,—a catastrophe all the more annoying to the people of the United States when they learned that the *Chesapeake* was the heavier of the two vessels in its size, as well as in the number of its crew and guns. This happened in 1813. Next year the war was brought to an end by the Treaty of Ghent.

The Earl of Dalhousie was Governor Sherbrooke's successor. In his first speech to the Assembly, he advised continued improvements in agriculture and education, an advice greatly enhanced by a series of brilliant letters written by 'Agricola,' and published in a Halifax weekly newspaper. These letters awakened a fresh interest in the art that clears a forest, drains a field or marsh, and produces crops from year to year without exhausting the soil; while the impression they made, led to the formation of a Provincial Agricultural Society, and the election of their author, Mr. John Young, to a seat in the House of Assembly.

The history of provincial education at this time is intimately associated with that of Windsor College, Pictou

Academy, and Dalhousie College. Previous to 1787, a British Society in connection with the Church of England had opened a few schools in Halifax. It was not till 1811, when a system of common schools was first inaugurated, that grammar schools were established in the chief towns of the counties, with a regular allowance of one hundred pounds drawn from the provincial exchequer. In 1788, after ten years' discussion of a plan for collegiate education, King's College was opened at Windsor, built and supported by grants from the House of Assembly and the British Government. In 1802, it was permanently established by Royal Charter, though from the character of its laws, it had only the confidence of the Episcopalians. The Presbyterians maintained a rival institution at Pictou under the superintendence of Dr. McCulloch. Lord Dalhousie saw that one institution of this kind was all that was required for Nova Scotia, and proposed to endow a college in Halifax with certain revenues, sent to him from Britain as share of the spoil in the American War. The college was founded, though the plan of union failed.

Between Lord Dalhousie and the House of Assembly, there arose some disagreement concerning the general management of roads and the survey of the Crown Lands, for though popular as a man and governor, his schemes for the country's good were not always seconded by its representatives. On his withdrawal to Canada, in 1820, the House voted him a star and sword. These he refused to accept; but three years after, he visited Halifax and was received with every mark of honour.

Sir James Kempt arrived in the summer of 1820. This was the year in which Cape Breton again became part of Nova Scotia, and to carry out the details of the annexation was the new governor's first duty. Among the early representatives from the island was one Lawrence Cavanagh, a Roman Catholic, who on taking his seat in the House, refused to take that part of the state oath which slighted his religion. The agitation which followed, led

to the omission of that portion of the oath, when taken by Roman Catholic members, and the further abolition of Catholic disabilities. This was the period of the O'Connell commotions in Ireland.

The other events of Governor Kempt's rule comprised the arrival of Dr. Burke, the first Catholic bishop of Nova Scotia, and a destructive fire around the districts of Yarmouth and Clare. A vigorous land and road policy, with the Shubenacadie Canal project, engaged his attention, when he was notified of his transfer to the government of Canada.

Sir Peregrine Maitland, the next governor, was not long in the province when the members of the House of Assembly quarrelled among themselves and with the Council. The cause of the first dispute was some annoying language, addressed to a member by Mr. John Barry from Shelburne. Barry refused to read the apology prepared for him by the House, and the Speaker threatened to punish him. Two petitions were sent to Halifax by the people of Shelburne, asking the House to declare the seat vacant, so that they could return Barry a second time; and two committees were appointed to consider the request. Barry, in a violent letter, denounced the action of the second committee, and libelled some of its members. Then he was summoned before the bar of the House, to be sentenced to imprisonment during the rest of the session. An excited crowd, outside, rescued him from the officers, but when the military were called out, he quietly gave himself up. At last the House expelled him in the usual manner, receiving him, however, on his re-election, without any adverse action.

The collision between the House of Assembly and the Council was the effect of an attempt to raise the duty on brandy. The Council, in rejecting a bill providing for the increase, presumed to advise in the matter. This advice was spurned by the Assembly, the constitutional origin of all taxation. A new bill was prepared, and a general election ordered. But the country, being in favour of the tax,

sent nearly all the old members back to maintain their constitutional rights. Then the Council gave way to the temper of the people, and the bill became law.

In 1832, Sir Peregrine Maitland retired, having witnessed the first step towards the abolition of quit-rents, the introduction of steam at the Pictou mines, communication by steam-boat, the establishment of temperance societies and mechanics' institutes, and the opening of the struggle which ended in responsible government.

In **Cape Breton,** Major Desbarres was succeeded by Colonel Macormick, but the change brought no peace between governor and Council. There was war with France, which lost to the English St. Pierre and Miquelon. Other events included the visit of the Duke of Clarence, the arrival of a number of convicts, the departure of a part of the garrison, and a series of dissensions, which neither improved the trade of the island, nor the appearance of the capital, with its line of rough buildings and dingy barracks. When Macormick resigned, the government was left in the hands of the successive presidents of the Council.

General Despard was administrator, when the immigration of Highlanders to Cape Breton began. This was a continuance of the movement which took the ship, *Hector*, to Pictou, and spread towards Antigonish a Celtic population, which now found its way to Bras d'Or and the north. But the country was in the hands of a Council always wrangling, and a host of officials whose salaries drained the exchequer. The people showed their discontent by sending a petition to London, asking the right to elect a House of Assembly: but the only answer to this was the declaration of a union between Cape Breton and Nova Scotia.

General Ainslie was the last president. Writs were issued for the election of two members. The laws of Nova Scotia were adopted. Some of the officials were dismissed, a number pensioned, and a few retained for local positions. The people, still displeased, sent an

agent to England, to reverse the decision of the Imperial authorities; but the deliberations were harmless to change a policy so necessary to the island's welfare.

In **New Brunswick,** during the twenty years after Governor Carleton obtained leave of absence, no less than six governors—all military men—had charge of affairs. General Smythe was the last of these, remaining in authority until his death in 1823. While the Legislative Council and the House of Assembly were engaged in disputes connected with the revenue, and disturbing by 'dead locks' the routine of legislation, the merchants of the province gladly took advantage of the free lumber market in Britain, when Norwegian pine was being taxed sixteen dollars a ton. The prospect of making a fortune stirred up, in every corner, a spirit of enterprise, which continued even during the American War, in the arming of a regiment to repel an expected invasion.

In 1794, Edward, Duke of Kent, visited St. John, and was there entertained by the Hon. Ward Chipman, then Solicitor-General, and afterwards Judge of the Supreme Court. With the name of the latter are connected two events of interest. In 1796, a Commission, to determine the boundary between New Brunswick and Maine, met at St. Andrew's, with Mr. Chipman as one of Britain's two agents, and Judge Benson, of New York, as umpire. A former treaty spoke of the St. Croix as the limit; and to decide which was the river thus understood—the Magaguadavic or the Scoodiac—was the first difficulty. The decision, though in favour of the latter as the true St. Croix, did not end all trouble about the other sections of the dividing line. Thirty-three years after, discontent on the subject broke out afresh. Each country marshalled a militia force on the land under dispute. A party of mischievous idlers crossed over into Madawaska, and unfurled the United States' flag in the face of the people, but was soon dispersed, when their leader was carried a prisoner to Fredericton. The excitement then died away; for the two powers, Britain and the United

States, referred the whole question for settlement to the King of the Netherlands, when Ward Chipman, son of the former commissioner, was sent to Europe to represent the interests of his native province.

On the death of General Smythe, Judge Chipman was at once sworn in President of the Council, and hence, according to rule, became interim-administrator. Colonel Billop, an old councillor in his eighty-sixth year, looked upon the office as his by right of seniority, and assumed vice-regal authority at St. John under an appeal to Britain against the claim of his rival. But as the Imperial government failed to interfere,—Billop again became a subject to provincial rule, with Chipman at the head of affairs. The strife was a three months' marvel.

In General Smythe's time, when a number of disbanded soldiers laid out the town of Woodstock, the French squatters moved up the river as far as Madawaska. A company of negroes also raised a village of huts at Loch Lomond, near St. John. Dugald Stewart laid the foundation of Dalhousie's first street in the shade of its native alder bushes. Bathurst reared its head on the Nepisiguit, twenty miles from the roar of the falls which have made it famous. Meanwhile other improvements went on. The passenger boat of old Ebenezer Beckwith, dragged by horses, once a week, between Fredericton and St. John, had given way to river sail-boats; and these were also superseded by a little steamer, such as that which ran on Halifax and Pictou harbours. The lumber trade brought no less than a hundred vessels in a year to St. John, and half as many more to the Miramichi.

The fishermen of the United States had liberty to fish in colonial waters beyond a three mile limit, and this, only a nominal restraint, with other privileges granted to them by Britain, roused a degree of discontent, which disappeared, however, in the general prosperity and a steady increase of population. There were now seventy thousand people in the province.

Sir Howard Douglas came to New Brunswick as its

governor in 1824, and, as a first act, superintended the first regular census. Next year, fortune wavered in bestowing her favours: on the one hand, was sown the wealth from the opening up of British commerce; on the other, death and ruin marked their course in flames over the forests of the north.

Years before this, the votaries of free-trade in Britain had assumed a strength which no government in that country could well overlook. To buy in the cheapest market and sell in the dearest began to be a recognized maxim for nations as for men, and as such, grew slowly but surely into favour with British merchants and manufacturers. Canning's administration was the first to move in the same path, to break down the barriers which especially hindered the expansion of colonial commerce. Formerly a vessel, going from its owner in St. John to London, was obliged to return without enjoying any of the advantages of the coasting trade: it could not sail from one port in Britain to another. In 1825, this was changed. All British ports were open to colonial ships, as all colonial ports were open to Britain and the powers friendly to Britain. This regulation brought crowds of ships to engage in the lumber trade, and made ship-building much more profitable,—a means to coin a fortune.

Among those who hoped to share the riches expected to flow from this change, none needed it more than those who suffered in the Miramichi Great Fire. On the banks of New Brunswick's second river, three places of note had risen up to show the fruits of William Davidson's enterprise. Gilmour and Rankine on the one side, with the village Douglastown, Cunard and Company on the other, with Chatham, were working out the problem of Northumberland's forest wealth, having round their lumber-yards and ship-yards, a crowd of workers, with more gold in their pockets, perhaps, than prudence in their plans for the future. Newcastle was five miles further up, with its Jail and Court House and Presbyterian Kirk distinguishing it as the capital of the county with its thousand

inhabitants. For these, the troublous times of an early settler were just passing away, when 1825 came with its weight of misfortune.

All summer the people had complained of the great heat, and were further surprised with its return in the last of September. There were fires in the woods, they knew, but as the smoke appeared to come from a distance, no special alarm was shown, until the first five days in October told their progressive tale of evil. Wave after wave of smoke continued to float from the north-west towards the river, producing during the afternoon of the sixth the darkness of an eclipse. Still, the men thought it would pass away. But night showed the danger in its approaching glare; in a wall of fire, all behind, from which could be distinctly heard, in the awful calm, the crackling of the brush-wood, and the loud reports from the giant pines yielding up their strength to the flames. Then down burst the storm of fire from heaven and earth, mingled with the roaring of the flaming forest and the deafening thunder, with flying cinders and half burned branches. The fire raised a mighty wind of its own which lashed the waters of the harbour into huge chopping waves. 'To the marsh,' shouted the people of Newcastle, as they rushed from the ruin of their houses, towards a flat point of land running out into the river. The others pushed their way to the nearest beach, and there, on log or plank, or with head above water, they awaited the passing of the destroyer, some crowding together, half-naked and shivering with terror, shrieking, moaning, praying,—the centre of a sad, sad spectacle. Many lost their lives while crossing the river in boats or on spars snatched from the wharfs and burning ships, in all one hundred and sixty, with those consumed in the fire. At Douglastown, one house escaped, that wherein lay the body of one who had died a day before. The strength of a mother's love was witnessed in the living infant found protected by the charred remains of a woman. Twelve houses alone stood in Newcastle amid the blackened

chimneys of two hundred others. The fire had run a hundred miles, destroying in its sweep more than a million's worth of property.

The news of the disaster, spreading fast, brought in from various parts, money and sympathy for the sufferers. Halifax sent a handsome subscription in exemplary haste, and all Nova Scotia swelled the amount. From Britain, and the other colonies was drawn a sum over twenty thousand pounds. Some of this went to Fredericton, where a great amount of property was also laid in ashes, with the destruction of the first Government House. A third conflagration raged at Oromocto this year.

Enterprise still struggled hard with misfortune. The United States began to compete, under favouring circumstances, with the colonies in the West Indian trade, very much to the ruin of New Brunswick's commercial interests. Then the dark day for St. John came, when its merchants heard that Britain proposed to repeal the duties on foreign lumber. The despair of the people found vent in petitions to the Imperial government, supported by a pamphlet written by the governor, in which were described the evil effects to arise from such free trade. The cry from the colony was heard: the vote in the House of Commons favoured protection.

Sir Archibald Campbell arrived in 1831. King's College at Fredericton had been founded and endowed; but, as there were few schools in the province fit to prepare for it a suitable number of students, provision for improvement in general education demanded the governor's first attention. The Assembly was induced to grant an annual allowance to each teacher, thus introducing the system of parish schools and 'boarding-round' with an average salary of eighteen pounds a school. In 1834, the cholera struck down hundreds of St. John's population. Several fires carried off wealth that could ill be spared. Yet there was spirit enough left to organize joint-stock companies, to encourage immigration, to build highways and bridges, and even to project and subsidize a railway to run from St. Andrew's to Quebec.

Prince Edward Island was the new name given to St. John Island in 1799. The inconvenience of a name common to other places in America was the origin of a proposal in 1780, to call the island, New Ireland. The same reason was valid, when the Duke of Kent, as Commander-in-chief, became popular with the people of Charlottetown by building batteries for their protection, and barracks for the accommodation of two companies of provincial troops. Hence by the change of name, the islanders were able to honour the Prince who had proved a friend to them, and, at the same time, to remove the cause of many annoying mistakes.

The Earl of Selkirk brought out eight hundred Highlanders to spread over the acres of his large property near Point Prim. They were not the first to till the soil of that district, for it had formerly seen the growth and ruin of a French settlement. Soon, however, through the energy of willing hands, the fertile smile of summer and harvest was again seen on its fields. This immigration took place in 1803, two years before Colonel Fanning withdrew from the island, on the appointment of Major Desbarres, the old Governor of Cape Breton.

Charles Douglas Smith followed in 1813. He was sent as governor, but ruled as dictator. Thrice he dissolved the Assembly in pettish indifference to provincial rights, giving full play to his tyranny by enforcing the payment of all arrears. In all directions the constable moved, driving before him Saxon and Celt with loads of produce for Charlottetown market,—provisions, which the farmer had laid up for his family during the winter, but which had now to be turned into cash to meet an unexpected demand. No wonder there arose a cry of distress when this rigour of law continued even in the depth of winter! Sheriff McGregor and John Stewart were selected as the men most likely to check Smith in his merciless acts. The sheriff, pressed by some of the inhabitants, called three meetings which passed resolutions condemnatory of the governor's conduct, and to Stewart was

entrusted the charge of carrying these to London. Then the tyrant dismissed McGregor, and tried to arrest Stewart, but the escape of the latter to Nova Scotia and thence to England prevented rebellion on the island, and brought about the removal of Smith.

Colonel Ready was a very different governor from his predecessor. For five years no Assembly had been called together, but the new ruler, wishing to abide by the constitution, ordered an election in 1824, the year of his arrival. Of this Assembly, John Stewart was elected Speaker, and superintended the debate on Catholic emancipation. Commerce improved, and immigration again set in. Advanced education was encouraged by the endowment of the Central Academy, and agriculture by the opening of societies and annual exhibitions of stock and produce. The same prosperity lasted when Colonel Young succeeded Colonel Ready. Charlottetown was connected to Pictou by a little steamer which ran twice a week, and the census showed an increase of nine thousand to the population, now thirty-two thousand.

Sir John Harvey was appointed governor on the death of Sir Aretas Young, which took place at Charlottetown in 1835. In his tour through the province he was well pleased with the people's thrift and hospitality. Next year, he went to New Brunswick, when Sir Charles Fitzroy succeeded him.

CHAPTER III.

POLITICAL STRIFE.

Howe and the Magistrates.
The Family Compact.
Sir Colin Campbell.
Viscount Falkland.
The border trouble.
Wilmot and Fisher.
Privilege.
The Lazarette.
Miramichi and St. John riots.
The land question.
Pope's quarrel.
Sir Donald Campbell.

BRITAIN'S earliest plan for governing her colonies did not long continue to satisfy the minds of men, who, as their personal affairs prospered, began to take a pride in the country which gave them birth and a livelihood. A new generation arose which showed no respect for a system of government in which they had only a feeble voice. Even those of the Loyalists, who held seats in the first representative courts were occasionally found differing in opinion with their governor and his Council,—an independence by no means lost upon their sons, when a few years placed them in a like position. At first, control in minor affairs was obtained; but before 1837, this had burst into a strong desire for government which would be subject to the votes of the people.

As in Canada the names of Papineau and Mackenzie recall the rebellion and bloodshed for reform in colonial rule, so with that of Joseph Howe rang out the herald note, which ushered in a Nova Scotian administration controlled by the popular will. As editor of a weekly newspaper in Halifax, Mr. Howe had scourged the rulers of that city into something like order; though to do so, he had to pass through the ordeal of a public trial. His brilliant defence before the court made him and his Liberal principles the watchword of Reformers in every corner of the province. Soon after, he was elected member for Halifax, and as such, at once began to lay bare

the counterpart of the corruption at the City Board, in the conduct of the Executive Council.

The Council, at this time, was strangely organized. There were twelve members, all appointed for life, and responsible to no one save the Crown or its representative, the governor. One of them was Chief Justice, one Bishop of the Episcopal Church, five of them were bound by family ties, and five of them partners in a mercantile firm.

The first point of attack against this oligarchy was the privacy of its deliberations: its doors were always closed to the public. The House of Assembly passed a resolution condemning the practice, and sent a copy of it to the Council Chamber. The Council, in retort, told the members to mind their own business, and further advised them to re-appoint a chaplain, and resume the religious services, which they had lately discontinued in a spirit of neglect to their own and the country's spiritual welfare. This tone of defiance and insult roused the Reformers to greater action. Mr. Howe prepared a manifesto of the abuses sanctioned by the Council, and presented it to the Assembly in twelve resolutions. These denounced in bold language the favouritism, monopoly, and self-interest practised within the charmed circle of the Council's friends. The true ring of patriotism in them carried them through the House. The Council refused to communicate with the Assembly unless one of the resolutions impugning the personal honesty of its members was rescinded. Mr. Howe proposed to rescind all of them, and moved for an address to the Crown embodying the same complaints. This was accompanied by a counter address from the Council. Each told its own tale at the Colonial Office in London; and the answer came, excluding the judges from the Council, granting full control of the public revenues to the House of Assembly, and submitting to the popular demand for the organization of a Legislative Council, outside of that already established. Thus was the first step in the great contest gained by the Liberals.

Sir Colin Campbell was now governor. Eighteen months had elapsed since the withdrawal of Sir Peregrine Maitland, an interval during which had been prepared the outlines of a task, sufficient to engage all the energies even of the tried soldier of the Peninsular War. A serious depression in trade, and the cholera in Halifax met him at the threshold of his rule. The rejection of a bill to incorporate the capital kept up the excitement roused by the Howe trial. Three events more cheering followed:—the abolition of quit rents, in lieu of two thousand pounds paid yearly from the provincial exchequer; the encouragement of trade by the establishing of five new free ports; and the opening of steam communication between Halifax and Britain by the first steamer of the Cunard Line.

The appointments to the new Legislative Council gave great offence to the Reformers. The governor was blamed for partiality to the Episcopalians, and an address complaining of his conduct was sent to the Queen. But the disciplined general met the attack as he afterwards met the enemy in the Crimean War and the Indian Mutiny—with stubbornness and a will to subdue. Mr. Howe, in his newspaper and in the House, gave the administration no peace. Then came from Lord John Russell, the Colonial Secretary, the famous despatch to the Governor of New Brunswick, virtually conceding the principle of responsible government to the colonies. This intelligence was ignored by Sir Colin Campbell and his advisers. Mr. Howe, by four resolutions in the Assembly, demanded an explanation. The governor answered that he was still acting according to latest instructions. This forced the Assembly to petition the Crown for his removal, an event which took place, after a visit from the Governor-General to smooth the way for the change. He, whose name was afterwards to resound through the world, as hero of the Alma and Balaklava, did not pass from Nova Scotia, however, in the gloom of unpopularity: a pleasing tribute was paid to his worth, as he shook hands with his political opponents, and bade farewell to his friends.

Viscount Falkland was his successor. A Liberal himself, he was pleased to recognize the principle, fought for by the Liberals, and now fixed as a part of the constitution. The majority of the ten members in the Executive Council was chosen from the Assembly, and after a new election, the Reformers, still victors, placed their leader, Mr. Howe, in the honourable office of Speaker. The incorporation of Halifax was then accomplished.

During an animated discussion on education, Lord Falkland threatened a dissolution, an act prompted by the Conservatives, and highly displeasing to the Reformers. Then he appointed a Conservative to the Council. Three of the Liberals resigned their positions in the government. At this time, Mr. Howe resumed his pen as editor of the *Chronicle*, and attacked Lord Falkland as he had Sir Colin Campbell, but with greater virulence. The government was re-organized without Howe's assistance. This destroyed the last hope of a compromise. The country was with Howe. The reform party, it is true, had murmured against him when he accepted office; but under his energy they were now again united. Lord Falkland complained of him at the Colonial Office,—to place Mr. Howe in any position in the government, he said, was to make him more than governor. This was the signal for the accused to shower upon the Viscount, the fullest storm of his invective, satire, and ridicule. A poem, entitled 'Lord of the Bedchamber,' was read and recited everywhere, with the laugh against the governor. Lord Falkland's friends called Howe a mendicant, because he had received a large present of money from the reform party. Nearly every morning some personal remark appeared in the *Chronicle* denouncing the governor and ridiculing his court. It was a bitter war of words, ending only when His Excellency returned to England.

At this time, the education law was amended. As one of his last acts, Lord Falkland made a tour through the province. Everywhere he was received coldly. This was in 1845, the year before his departure.

Sir John Harvey, whose name and career as governor make a unit of the history of the four provinces for a few years, had been in New Brunswick and Newfoundland before he assumed the direction of affairs in Nova Scotia. In New Brunswick he had been successor to Sir Archibald Campbell, under whom the revenues of the province had changed hands, during the first great political agitation. Britain had given up the amount derived from the sale of new lands, (the Casual and Territorial Revenues,) and the government of New Brunswick had promised to pay part of the salaries of the officials, to the amount of £14,500.

The most memorable event in Sir John Harvey's time was the disturbance about the boundary line between Maine and New Brunswick. The decision of the King of the Netherlands had not produced satisfaction, as his award gave to neither power the lion's share. Maine growing restless, began to send men and arms towards Aroostook. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia voted large sums of money for the transport of troops to the border and their maintenance there. Then there was the confusion of war, though happily without its bloodshed. Stern men stood menacing their fellows, waiting the signal gun which should send them tearing at one another's lives, like barbarians: nor did they lay aside their angry looks until the good sense of Sir John Harvey arranged a truce, which, through the further diplomacy of Lord Ashburton and Daniel Webster, was prolonged into a peace treaty at Washington. According to it, New Brunswick gained in territory more wealth than was lost by allowing the lumber of Maine to pass down the St. John River.

Having incurred the unjust displeasure of the Governor-General, Sir John Harvey withdrew to Britain, where his defence, however, turned affairs in his favour, and obtained for him the governorship of Newfoundland. While in New Brunswick, his path was beset with enemies and political storms. The recklessness of ignorant financiers had run the province into debt, for which the governor had to bear the largest share of blame. When the

revenues were given up by Britain, the government had in its hands more than half a million of dollars; three years after, the exchequer was empty, though the provincial income had greatly increased from the growth of the population, now one hundred and fifty thousand.

At the capital of Newfoundland, Sir John enjoyed as little rest as at Fredericton. In 1832 a representative Assembly had been granted to the islanders in answer to repeated petitions, and every election had brought its strife and riots. The echo of one of the most serious of these had scarcely died away on his arrival; and to maintain a becoming popularity with the two political factions, was a hard task even for him whose urbanity was proverbial. He witnessed, however, many improvements, such as the building of the two cathedrals, the arrival of the first mail steam-packet, the introduction of gas and water in the streets of St. John's, and the organization of a public library and mechanics' institute.

From Newfoundland Sir John Harvey passed to Nova Scotia. There he found the Conservative government which had been organized by Lord Falkland, in the last stage of its fretful existence. To resuscitate it was an impossible task, for the Reformers would have none of it; they looked to the next general election for complete deliverance from the Conservatives. This took place in 1847, when their success was ensured by the election of Mr. William Young as Speaker of the new House of Assembly, and the construction of the Howe-Uniacke ministry—the first Liberal administration in Nova Scotia.

Sir John Harvey died at Halifax in 1852. Before his death, Nova Scotia made use of its first electric telegraph, saw its people earnest for railway extension, and arranged its constitution and justiciary laws. Halifax, in 1849, celebrated its centennial in a day's gayety, with an oration by Murdoch, the historian, and a poem from Joseph Howe.

Sir William Colebrooke was the first governor under whom the people of New Brunswick adopted in their

politics the principle of responsible government. Lord John Russell's despatch to Sir John Harvey had been neglected, until Mr. L. A. Wilmot, by his eloquence, and Mr. Charles Fisher, by his tact, brought its instructions to light, and made them popular. Their most active opponent was Mr. Robert Hazen, the leader of the Conservatives.

The first contest was a three days' debate on the initiation of the money grants. Mr. Wilmot moved that these be placed in the hands of the government, but the motion was rejected by the men who wished to spend the revenues in the old irresponsible manner, notwithstanding the low state of the provincial funds and the importunity of the governor to see the advice of the Colonial Secretary take effect.

In making official appointments, Lord Metcalfe, then Governor-General, sought to establish merit, not party favour, as the guide. Every religious denomination, he also said, should be represented in the Legislative Council; while a member, who happened to become bankrupt should at once vacate his seat. These and other opinions he introduced into New Brunswick, in a despatch, which advised the reconstruction of its Councils, and which was subsequently endorsed by a congratulatory address from the House of Assembly. Next year the inconsistency of the House appeared, when Governor Colebrooke appointed Mr. Reade, his son-in-law, to the office of Provincial Secretary; for the cry of indignation among members and constituents was only hushed when the appointment was revoked.

A curious case of 'privilege' arose out of the above. Wilmot and Fisher alone stood out against the address as champions of party government. On account of the opposition, the former was abused by a Conservative newspaper in libellous terms, and, when the matter came before the House, the proprietors of the paper were arrested on the Speaker's warrant. But one of the Judges issued a *Habeas Corpus* in their behalf, and thus set

them both at liberty to flood the desks of the members with slips of printed paper full of sneers and defiance. The dignity of the House was violently disturbed. A committee was appointed to bring in a report condemning the Judge's interference. This was supported by a large majority; though, in another inconsistent mood, the same majority suffered the sum of eight hundred dollars to pass from the exchequer to the delinquents for false imprisonment, besides the usual fee for reporting the debates of the Assembly. To avenge the insult to Mr. Wilmot formed no part of the investigation, for that gentleman and his liberal opinions were still obnoxious to the dominant party.

At this time, the first money grant was paid by the Assembly for the seclusion of those who had been attacked with a disease called leprosy, then lurking in some districts of Gloucester and Northumberland. It was reported that a number of French sailors, shipwrecked on New Brunswick's coast, had introduced the disease from the east. The death of seven victims, and the dread of infection by the people roused the philanthropy of the province. A lazaretto was established on Sheldrake Island, at the mouth of the Miramichi; but this was subsequently removed to Tracadie, where it still stands, a retreat for the wretched incurables, who, pitied by the world, may there endure in retirement the pangs of their terrible affliction.

During the election of 1842, serious riots had disturbed the peace of Northumberland, for which the Assembly was obliged to pay heavy damages. These outrages were the effect of a week's election tour through the parishes, for each polling place having then a separate day on which to make up its record of votes, a county election generally spread over many days. On this occasion, an idle mob, bent on mischief, and opposed to the return of Mr. Ambrose Street as the Liberal representative of the district, marched from parish to parish, and committed a series of follies so outrageous, that a detachment of

soldiers had to be sent from Fredericton to put an end to them. The law, establishing simultaneous voting, lessened the possibility of such lawless acts.

Destructive fires among the buildings of St. John, and the prospect of a depressing change in British duties on lumber, with an overstocked market, gave an unhappy look to that commercial centre. More than four thousand of its people were dependent on public charity, while over three hundred were on the limits for debt. Yet the unruly had spirit enough left to quarrel over the silly emblem of an Irish party, which had been placed on a flag-pole. The rumour of coming strife had been abroad all day, and at night, a crowd from the offended faction paraded the streets, insulting other citizens and howling like maniacs. Affairs appeared in an unsettled state, but the energy of the Mayor and the arrests he made, quelled the disturbance. The same feeling, however, flamed out again on a subsequent 12th of July. In the procession of that occasion and out of it, men were prepared for deadly combat. At the foot of the principal street, on the spot where the Loyalists had quoted their motto from Virgil, *O fortunati quorum jam mœnia surgunt*, the disgraceful scene of citizen striving against citizen with knife and bludgeon and pistol, was witnessed. Many persons were killed, hundreds were wounded, all unlucky victims of the storm which cleared the way for future peace and good-will among the people of St. John.

The Reformers of St. John, encouraged by events in Canada and Nova Scotia, gained strength every day. Dr. William Livingstone was their leader, and to him and his writings may be referred some of the success, which afterwards attended their efforts to popularize their principles among the constituencies of the province.

When Sir William Colebrooke raised his relative to the high position of Colonial Secretary, both political parties, in opposing the appointment, understood the necessity for responsible government as they never had before. The administration, which continued to support

the governor, dwindled to small compass for want of men to join its ranks. At last, Mr. Reade was removed, and a coalition formed. But there was no peace. A surplus fund for the civil list having been misappropriated for the survey of lands in Madawaska, the Colonial Secretary and Sir William were alike denounced for transgressing the limit of their prerogatives. The Crown Lands were mismanaged, the revenues squandered, and yet the rump of a government held on to power notwithstanding its unpopularity. Every session the struggle went on. The Reformers kept their ground, notwithstanding the defeat of a general election. Lord Russell's despatch, which advised that the heads of government departments should hold office during the pleasure of the representatives of the people, had taken root in Nova Scotia, as a part of the constitution. At length in 1848, Mr. Fisher came to the front with a resolution embodying the principle of the despatch which the House of Assembly passed by a large majority. Thus was the death blow dealt to favouritism and old compacts in New Brunswick, and the foundation of popular government laid, two years after the battle had been fought and won in Nova Scotia.

Sir William Colebrooke was succeeded by Sir Edmund Head. Sir William's last session with the House of Assembly was held in St. John. During his rule, King's College drew down upon it the severe criticism of members, hostile to its constitution of that day; but in this, as in more trying conflicts, it stood unharmed. The political turmoil did not interfere with the prosperity of the country. A healthy desire to improve its institutions, schools, railways, and to promote reciprocal trade with its neighbours, were the first fruits of responsible government.

Sir Charles Fitzroy, Governor of Prince Edward Island in 1837, was not long in finding out the true cause of discontent among the tenant farmers. Hardship had engendered a suspicion of injustice. The first settler, fighting with the stubborn wilderness, which for a few

seasons repaid him for his toil with the barest necessaries of life, often cheered himself and family with the prospect of comfort from a cleared farm. During these dark days of crushing toil, he was unable to pay rent: nor was any then demanded. As soon, however, as the proprietor learned that his tenant had forty or fifty acres under cultivation, with respectable buildings near them, the arrears, which had accumulated from the first year, were added up and sent in to be paid. Ejection, under these circumstances, was not uncommon. The bailiffs often had a busy time of it. On one occasion, some of the King's County farmers resisted the sheriff and ham-strung his horses. The governor issued a circular to the proprietors, advising them to sell the land to the tenants under some system of payment by instalment, or allow something to them for improvements. The House of Assembly passed a law, providing for an assessment on all lands in the province, which the proprietors opposed. A report was prepared on the subject by the ablest men in the Assembly. Lord Durham wrote a long letter favouring the true interests of the island: and at last the enactment received the royal sanction, notwithstanding the importunity of the circle who tried to regulate the land question in London. This defeat showed that their influence was on the wane.

In 1839, the Legislative Council was made separate and distinct from the Executive; when, pleased with the concession, the first House of Assembly under this change, manifested its loyalty by offering to help New Brunswick in the disturbance with Maine over the boundary question. In the same session a proposal was made to establish a court of escheat, and to levy a penal tax on land unoccupied.

Sir Henry Vere Huntly arrived in 1841, as soon as Sir Charles Fitzroy departed for the West Indies. A sigh for responsible government made itself heard in a quarrel between the governor and Mr. Joseph Pope, an influential politician, who held in 1846 the position of Speaker. Mr.

Pope had objected to an increase of five hundred pounds to the governor's salary. Sir Henry retaliated by dismissing, on his own responsibility, the economical Speaker from the Executive Council; but the case, when referred to Mr. Gladstone, as Colonial Secretary, was sent back to the Council with an order to reinstate Mr. Pope until the judgment of that body was declared for or against him. Meanwhile Mr. Pope resigned, to appear next year at the head of a successful movement in opposition to a petition for a renewal of Sir Henry's tenure of office.

The indignation of King's County, about an ejection suit, again broke forth in mob force and the torch of the incendiary. A disorderly election likewise disturbed the peace of Belfast district, in the death of one or two, and the wounding of nearly a hundred. The cure for such evils as the latter was provided in the introduction of simultaneous voting in the various districts of the whole island.

The Assembly in 1847, drew up an address to the Queen on the subject of responsible government; but, interrupted in the agitation by the arrival of a new governor, in the person of Sir Donald Campbell, the Reformers heard nothing more of their petition until 1849, when its prayer was rejected in a despatch from London. Earl Grey, Colonial Secretary, thought that the wealth and population of the province did not yet demand a system of self-government, such as that enjoyed by the neighbouring colonies. He advised the legislature, moreover, to provide for the civil list, outside of the governor's salary, which the Imperial exchequer, he said, would in future disburse at the rate of fifteen hundred pounds. In reply, the Assembly pressed their claims for some control of the Executive: to pay the civil list was an easy matter, if the revenues were placed in the hands of officials, responsible to the electors of the island. The abolition of quit-rents and the management of the crown lands also formed part of the Assembly's demand.

The general election of 1850 declared the people's verdict

in favour of the change proposed by the Reformers. The first duty of the new Assembly was to attach to the governor's Speech a clause recording their want of confidence in the Executive of that time. Sir Donald tried to re-construct his Council. But as the Lower House fought for a principle, they dared not bend to any temporary arrangement. They passed some supplies absolutely necessary. All other subjects, mentioned in the Speech, they refused to discuss, so that, at last, after two sessions in one year, the governor was obliged to dismiss them with a reprimand. Sir Donald Campbell, however, did not live to see the end of the struggle. Scarcely had his report of affairs in the colony reached London, to be discussed and praised, when the sickness of death seized him at the age of fifty.

Sir Alexander Bannerman, the next governor, brought with him the pleasing news in 1851 that his predecessor's able report had effected a change in the mind of Earl Grey, who was willing to comply with the request of the Assembly if they agreed to grant pensions to the retiring officials. This was all that was wanted, and, in a short time an administration was constructed on the new principle, with Mr. George Coles as President of the Council, Mr. Charles Young as Attorney-General and Mr. Joseph Pope as Treasurer. Two years after, a reconstruction took place when Mr. Young retired. At the same time a change was made in the franchise, which, in causing a general election, ended in defeat to the government. The Holl-Palmer government then was organized; but, met by a dissolution ordered by Governor Bannerman on the eve of his departure to the Bahamas, it was broken up by the new election.

When called to the government of Newfoundland in 1857, Sir Alexander Bannerman fulfilled a mission similar to that which took him to Prince Edward Island. In connection with the fisheries, France and England held a convention in 1856, but when the decision of that assembly was placed before the Newfoundland Legislature,

dissatisfaction arose at its terms. Then England sent a dispatch to the governor, in which it was plainly stated that the territorial or maritime rights of Newfoundland would not be changed without the consent of its people. This was gratifying news to all the colonies. Yet the political changes and religious strife, which responsible government produced on the island, were not without their sad consequences. Sir Alexander, in organizing a new Executive Council, created the necessity for a general election, which was attended with much rioting and bloodshed; and, for some time, he had difficulty in maintaining peace and order between the opposing factions. He retired in 1864.

CHAPTER IV.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT.

Major Robinson's survey.	Protection.
Reciprocity Treaty.	Downing Street tyranny.
Mining Association.	Land Commission of 1860.
The Judges' Salaries.	Prince of Wales' Visit.

ALTHOUGH many of the benefits prophesied of responsible government were never realized; yet the new power, exercised by the people, promoted amongst them a loyalty towards colonial interests, and a fixed determination to advance with the age. The spirit of the times favoured railway extension and free-trade. In 1845, the mania, which sought to bind all England in a network of iron, extended to New Brunswick in a project to connect Quebec with Shediac and Halifax. The united action of Canada with the Lower Provinces, induced the British Government to send Major Robinson to make his survey of the 'North Shore Route.' For three years the work went on. The Major's report, which estimated the cost at five millions sterling, was acceptable to the three provinces. Each province promised assistance, and hopes were high. But the Colonial Office frowned upon the scheme, and forced New Brunswick to look elsewhere for money to build its first railway. The year 1850 witnessed the rejoicings at the Portland Convention, where the citizens of the United States, in entertaining the free-trade delegates from Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, revealed a plan for stringing Portland, Bangor, St. John and Halifax on one line of railway connection. Then began in New Brunswick the 'war of routes,'—the northern counties being loud in favour of the route surveyed by Major Robinson, the counties on the St. John River as loud for a line along the river, and Charlotte for a frontier route. The city of St. John had the hardest of the battle, in advocating extension

to Bangor, for many spoke against the proposal to build a railway on British soil with New England funds. Among these was Joseph Howe, who had gone to England to raise a loan for building a road between Halifax and Windsor. There his eloquence breathed a new life into the project for an Intercolonial line. The frown of the Colonial Office was changed into a smile. Earl Grey wrote to Lord Elgin, the Governor-General, advising him to arrange the Toronto Convention, at which delegates from all the provinces might meet to discuss the subject. Meanwhile New Brunswick had provided for the line between St. John and Shediac as part of the extension to Bangor, and refused to send delegates to Toronto unless Britain promised aid to such extension. Howe said that a promise to that effect had been made; but after the convention, when all preliminaries had been settled, a despatch from the Colonial Office laid bare Howe's mistake. Earl Grey showed that the misunderstanding had arisen from the misinterpretation of a letter, which had merely contained the promise, that no objection would be raised to make the line to St. John a part of the Intercolonial. This was the second blow to the scheme. Then was arranged the Halifax Convention. From it a deputation was sent to London to ask aid from the Imperial government. Delay provoked mistrust. At length the impatience of Mr. Hincks, one of the deputation, demanded an answer. The answer came, but it was one refusing aid. This broke up the unity of the plan for building the Intercolonial Railway, and set each province to work out a separate railway policy. When Howe was appointed chairman of Nova Scotian railways, the government was re-constructed, with the prospect, however, of finally establishing a line between Halifax and Pictou, one to Windsor, and a section from Truro to the Isthmus boundary. New Brunswick urged on the work between Shediac and St. John.

In 1854, a Reciprocity Treaty, to last for ten years, was ratified at Washington. Lord Elgin, agent for Britain,

caused much discontent by his haste in signing away colonial rights before the legislatures had time to discuss the terms of the treaty. Many believed that the United States had again the best of the bargain, in the right to fish without limit, in the free use of the canals in Canada, and the navigation of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. John; for, as an offset to these privileges, the provinces had obtained only a free market in the Republic for their fish and lumber. Nova Scotia was the last to agree to the proposal; and in some of the speeches uttered during the discussion, the right of taking part in such negotiations was openly maintained.

The last two years of the first Reform administration in Nova Scotia was animated by the first attempt to pass a prohibitory liquor law, and the general excitement of the province in watching the fortunes of Britain in the Crimean War. The death-blow was given to the government by the man who had been its leader. A religious riot had occurred among some railway navvies, and Howe, in a violent mood, attacked the Roman Catholics. Soon after, a vote of want of confidence transferred the power from the Liberals to the Conservatives, with Johnston as Attorney-General, and Tupper, Provincial Secretary.

The Mining Association had long been an unpopular body. It had its origin in 1825, when the Duke of York, in the hope of adding to his income, conferred upon an English company the privilege of working certain mines in Nova Scotia. The power to do so he had obtained from his brother George IV. This company, to save itself from bankruptcy, developed into a General Association. But the Assembly looked with jealous eye on the exercise of a right it had never sanctioned. Obstacles were easily raised. For years, the mining interests of the province were at a stand-still, until the Conservatives gained the ascendency. Then a successful effort was made to establish the Charter of the Association on a firm basis. A delegation went to England for advice which proved favourable; and a vote, encouraging the Association to proceed with its

operations, was passed in the Legislature. This happened in the same year, 1858, in which Sir John Gaspard Le Marchant gave way as governor to the Earl of Mulgrave.

The Conservatives in power strove hard to retain it, even in face of a change of public opinion as expressed in the general election of 1859. When the House met, the Liberals had a majority of two, in the contest for Speaker. Still, the government refused to resign. Several members, the Attorney-General said, were disqualified to vote, as they had held office during the election. The House refused to investigate the charge, and the government proposed a dissolution to the governor. But Lord Mulgrave knew his duty only. He cared not to pass judgment on a case which the Assembly alone could decide; and thus, when their advice was rejected, the Conservatives changed places with their opponents. The new ministry comprised Joseph Howe as Provincial Secretary, Adams G. Archibald, Attorney-General, with William Young as leader and President of the Council.

In **New Brunswick,** party government did not come into full play till 1855. Previous to this, the Assembly, undisturbed by party votes, spent much of its eloquence in a general cry for retrenchment. Wilmot, who with Fisher had joined the government, guided the current of popular feeling against the high salaries of the Judges. His success in reducing these roused other patriots to demand a like decrease for all the officials and the abolition of the Judges' fees. This was a pressure the Bench would not bear. They appealed to England. Their salaries and fees, they said, had been fixed when the Legislature first promised to pay the £14,500 towards their support, and to curtail these during their lives would be a breach of trust. Lord Grey took sides against the Assembly in protecting the Judges, and the action raised a storm, which even Attorney-General Street with his courage, could not stem. For a time the subject was a lever to move the House to periodic excitement, until, under the name of 'Botsford's Offering,' it became a power only to provoke ridicule.

Another source of political strife arose from free-trade discussions. The high Imperial duty on flour, had led to the erection of several flour-mills near St. John. Afterwards, when this duty was withdrawn by England, the owners of the mills sought the Legislature to protect their trade by a provincial duty on all imported flour. The subject gave scope to the orators of the House, and the tax was legalized. Next session the protectionists again appeared with petitions. They asked for protective duties on all provincial industries, and a fisherman's bounty; but while the Assembly considered the whole subject, a despatch from Lord Grey was presented, in which dissent was recorded against the Bill granting a bounty to hemp growers. This, viewed as an unnecessary interference, quickened into rage the feeling against the despatch system, and the rule of Downing Street. The repeal of the Navigation Laws added to the vexation. Mr. Wark, by his resolutions in the Assembly, tried to show that responsible government in New Brunswick was yet only a name. In face of the Earl's decree, another member introduced a Bill to provide for fishery bounties; while, during the debate, the despotism of the Colonial Office was in everybody's mouth. The House cheered the Bill in its third reading, and voted three thousand pounds as a bounty fund. But the defiance was a mere shadow; for the Legislative Council rejected the Bill, and thus brought about the re-action of quiet.

A new Assembly was returned in 1851, with a great increase of strength to the Liberals. Wilmot had been raised to the Bench, and Mr. John Ambrose Street had taken his place in the government. Mr. J. W. Ritchie, leader of the Opposition, saw hope for his party in the election of a Liberal as Speaker, and moved a 'vote of want of confidence.' But the Hon. Mr. Partelow had been at work. The government was sustained, with a four years' reign before them. With the influence of Street in the House, and Partelow in the ante-rooms, the strength of the coalition was greater than ever.

In **Prince Edward Island** attempts were at various times made to settle land disputes, by purchasing some of the large estates, such as the Worrel and Selkirk. Meanwhile other events occurred. Sir Dominick Daly, successor to Governor Bannerman, saw Charlottetown incorporated, opened the new Normal School, and ordered the census of 1855, which recorded a population of seventy-one thousand. A general discussion on the use of the Bible in schools did the government no good. One election made the two parties in the House equal; another brought in the Palmer-Gray administration, in which no Roman Catholic had a seat. The Council thought the exclusion unjust, but the skirmish which followed did not damage the popularity of the government, for its leader, Colonel Gray, had already expressed himself in favour of an independent Commission on the land question.

This land Commission, when organized in 1860, consisted of Messrs. Howe, Gray,* and Ritchie; the first being the representative chosen by the tenants, the second by the Crown, and the third by the proprietors. They held courts at the various towns, listening to complaints from the farmer and arguments from his landlord. In their elaborate report, they explained how the evils had arisen from the first division of the province in 1767. They recommended the purchase of lands by the government and their re-purchase by the tenantry, on the expectation that the Imperial Parliament would grant a loan of £100,000. They objected to escheat, but provided for free grants to Loyalists. The French claims, they said, could not be recognized, but the Indians were to remain in possession of Lennox Island. All the phases of the subject were laid before them, and were examined with a carefulness which commanded the respect of all parties.

When the report was submitted, the Assembly recorded its satisfaction by passing an Act to make it law. But as the proprietors were still dissatisfied, the Colonial Secretary sent a despatch disallowing the Act. This roused the indignation of the whole island. An address

* The Hon. John H. Gray of New Brunswick.

was sent to the Queen, beseeching her to give her sanction to the report as part of the provincial law on land tenure. The opinion of the Crown lawyers favoured the Colonial Secretary's view of the matter, and the Queen could not subscribe to a document which her advisers declared illegal. At length, the House of Assembly took on itself the responsibility of raising money to do what the Commissioners had advised; while it was agreed to leave the final settlement of the value of lands to be purchased, to a subsequent commission, which met in 1875.

The spring of 1860 brought the tidings from Britain that the **Prince of Wales** intended to visit America in July. This was welcome news to all the provinces, and the large cities made good use of their time in preparing to receive right loyally the son of Queen Victoria. Newfoundland and its capital, St. John's, had the honour of giving the first shout of welcome. Simultaneously a royal salute, regulated by telegraph, boomed from all the batteries in Canada and the Lower Provinces; a shout went up from the hearts of the people. At Halifax, the harbour was crowded with the Admiral's ships, and the citadel bedecked with colours. Four thousand children sang the national anthem as the long procession of soldiers, militia, and city societies passed along the streets in escort of the Prince and his companion the Duke of Newcastle. Old associations connected with the residence of the Duke of Kent were revived. The old men thought of their boyhood, when sixty years before they had flung their caps in the air, as the Prince's grandfather passed through Granville Street to be presented with a star by the House of Assembly. Rejoicings lasted three days, and then the royal party passed to St. John, by Windsor. The city of the Loyalists sustained its name. The citizens joined their voices with those of their children in singing the song of freedom and monarchy, and filled Chipman's Hill with their hearty English cheers. From Fredericton, the Prince returned to Halifax, and thence by Truro and Pictou, went to Charlottetown. There, at

night, the harbour was illuminated with fireworks. The town had within it thrice its population. Saxon and Celt raised their huzzas in concert, for the latter forgot, in his holiday, the zeal of his ancestors in fighting for Prince Charlie and the Stewart tartan. All through Canada, the Prince met with like receptions. At Quebec, addresses were read to him in French and English, and the Speakers of both Houses of Parliament, in return, were knighted. At Montreal, he opened with kingly ceremony the Victoria Bridge and the Provincial Exhibition. At Ottawa he laid the corner stone of the present Parliament Buildings. Toronto, London, and Hamilton assumed their gayest look. At Niagara, the grandeur of nature was lit up at night with hundreds of Bengal lights; and during day Blondin made a bridge of a rope over the roaring cataract. At length from Canada the Prince went to the United States, where he had a pleasant welcome. From city to city he passed, answering the addresses of a people who, for the moment, spoke from a heart as English as their tongue.

CHAPTER V.

CONFEDERATION.

Factions in Canada.
Convention at Charlottetown.
Quebec Convention.
Reaction in New Brunswick.
Dominion Day.
Howe becomes President.
Further consolidation.
War of Secession.
The Fenians.
'City of Boston.'

THE people on this side of the Atlantic had long been familiar with the hope which pointed to the rise of a new nation on the shores of the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence. Some prophesied of a time when the British Provinces would disappear in the Union of their neighbours, but this was only uttered in times of distress or when Britain, for state reasons, sacrificed colonial interests. The hearts of the people never leaned towards Annexation. In 1839, when Lord Durham, in defending his rule in Canada, laid his celebrated Report before the British Parliament, he spoke of a federal union among the British North American colonies, as a cure for many of the evils under which Canadians periodically groaned. A twelvemonth after, the legislative union between Upper and Lower Canada was established, with equal representation from each province; but instead of promoting amity between French Conservatism and English Liberalism, it merely developed a stedfast faith in Lord Durham's panacea.

The year 1858 was one of violent party strife in Canada. In July, the Macdonald-Cartier administration of four years' standing succumbed to an adverse vote; and Mr. George Brown, leader of the Reformers (Grits) was called upon to organize a ministry. This he did. But his opponents taking advantage of a House in which the members of the new government, not yet re-elected, had no right to vote, the Reformers were displaced by a small majority after a three days' reign. Brown urged

the Governor-General, Sir Edmund Head, to order a dissolution; but the advice was rejected, and the Macdonald-Cartier ministry again took the reins. This proved to the Liberals that the coalition between the great French party and the Conservatives of the Upper Province was a power they could not overcome in Parliament. The reform party had long fought for representation by population; and at last when they saw the impossibility of succeeding without a revolution, they met in convention at Toronto, to advocate a federal union between the two provinces, such as that now existing between all the provinces of British North America. This was the first step taken in Canada towards Confederation.

But four years previous to the Toronto meeting, the Assembly of Nova Scotia had been moved by the eloquence of the Hon. J. W. Johnston to discuss the subject, and to send a deputation of inquiry to Britain, consisting of himself and Mr. Adams G. Archibald. The answer brought back was that the Imperial Government would throw no obstacle in the way of such a union. Another embassy, comprising Cartier, Galt and Rose, was commissioned to appear before Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton, then Colonial Secretary, and ask authority to call a meeting of delegates from all the provinces. As Sir Edward did not seem to think the time ripe for action, nothing more was done till 1864.

For a time, Liberals and Conservatives in the Upper Provinces were nearly equally matched in point of numbers. The resignation of the Taché Cabinet showed that neither party had a working majority. Negotiations were opened between the two, to end in a coalition in which the Hon. George Brown had a seat; and then in committee was revived the scheme of substituting a federal for a legislative union. Meanwhile Dr. Tupper had been stirring up the people of the Lower Provinces to consider the importance of a union of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island. Resolutions had been passed in the three provincial parliaments recom-

mending the discussion of Maritime Union at a meeting of delegates to be held at Charlottetown. But while this convention was in session, another delegation arrived from Canada to advocate the Confederation of British North America. Macdonald, Brown, Cartier and Galt pressed the greater union in exhaustive speeches, and adjournment was proposed in order that more time should be devoted to its consideration at a general convention at Quebec. The members, therefore, left the hospitality of Charlottetown, to accept that of Halifax. At a banquet there, Brown gave his views in a brilliant and convincing speech. At St. John, another warm reception was prepared for them. Fredericton also did them honour: everywhere public opinion seemed favourable.

On the tenth of October, 1864, the Quebec Convention met in the old Parliament House there. A draft of the constitution for the new federation was submitted and passed. A copy of it was sent to Britain for confirmation, and the delegates returned to their own provinces to await the decision of the various parliaments.

In the following February, the Canadian parliament, by sweeping majorities in both Houses, adopted a number of resolutions favouring Confederation; and those who had spoken so well for the scheme at Charlottetown were appointed to advocate the cause in Britain. A general election in New Brunswick, however, sent a majority of Anti-Confederates to the Assembly. Prince Edward Island, afraid of oppression, shook its head at the whole plan; while Nova Scotia, unwilling to negotiate for union, unaided by the sister provinces, began to reconsider Maritime Union by itself.

But Governor Gordon, in New Brunswick, was in league with the Confederates. An Anti-Confederate government had been formed; yet in his Speech to the Assembly, the governor recommended union with Canada, and the Legislative Council passed a vote in its favour. Everywhere throughout the province, on the platform, the street, and at the fireside, the project was the cause of

many a bitter word, many an unfinished discussion; every other political difference was forgotten. Liberals fought with Conservatives and against Liberals; for no one was there a middle or neutral course; all were Confederates or Anti-Confederates. At length, the Smith government, pressed on all sides, was forced to resign. The Tilley-Mitchell administration took its place; and Confederation was carried triumphantly at the polls.

This success encouraged the Legislature of Nova Scotia to listen once more to Dr. Tupper; and votes approving of the union were immediately passed in Assembly and Council. But many of the constituencies had changed their opinion, when Joseph Howe became an Anti-Confederate. Delegations were ordered to England,—the one headed by Howe and Annand, the other by Tupper and Archibald,—to move the Imperial authorities for or against the scheme. Then ensued a brilliant pamphlet war, which, if it did not overturn the arrangements for Confederation, enlisted a respect for colonial talent. The defeat of the opposition, however, was forecast. Howe, the Anti-Unionist, could not withstand the arguments of Howe, the Unionist, uttered a few years before. His rhetoric could not hide his inconsistency. In the end, an Act of Parliament fixed the natal day of the Dominion of Canada for the **First of July,** 1867, and authorized a loan of three millions sterling for the construction of the Intercolonial Railway.

The first administration under Lord Monk, the first Governor-General of the 'New Dominion,' was necessarily a coalition. Hon. George Brown had retired in 1865, when the difficulty arose about the renewal of the Reciprocity Treaty; but the Hon. William Macdougall, who had joined the Conservatives with him, was in the Cabinet. Sir John A. Macdonald, was Premier and Minister of Justice; Sir George Cartier, Minister of Militia; Hon. S. L. Tilley, Minister of Customs; Hon. Edward Kenny, Receiver-General. In this way, all the provinces were represented in the government.

The first great work of the Ministry was to calm the agitation in Nova Scotia. There the feeling against Confederation had burst into a cry for 'repeal'. In the general election of 1867, Dr. Tupper was the only Confederate returned for the Parliament at Ottawa, with Blanchard and Pineo for the Legislature at Halifax. An address to the Queen, urging repeal, was immediately prepared by the Assembly. Howe and Annand appeared once more at the Colonial Office. Tupper followed them. But the battle had been fought and won, when the union was proclaimed on 'Dominion Day'; and thus, after a fruitless attempt by Mr. John Bright, to bring the matter before the British House of Commons, the delegates were obliged to return in disappointment. Next year, the Hon. Joseph Howe accepted office, under the promise that Nova Scotia would receive a larger subsidy from the Dominion Exchequer.

The Union which at first included Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, was further extended in 1870 by the purchase of the North-West Territory from the Hudson Bay Company, and by the organization of a new province under the name, Manitoba. At the outset there was trouble. Banding themselves under Louis Riel, the French and Indians of the district, in holding Fort Garry, refused admittance to Hon. William Macdougall, the first Manitoban governor appointed by the Canadian government. Not until the Red River Expedition, commanded by Colonel Wolseley, had reached the province, could order be maintained under Governor Archibald.

In 1871, British Columbia in the hope of being united to Canada by the Pacific Railway, accepted the terms offered by the Dominion and became one of its provinces. Two years after, Prince Edward Island followed the example to the satisfaction of its people and all Canada, for by the event, the new nation so often spoken of was knit together as a unit in the first stage of its existence. In the latter province the opposition of the people to

Confederation had disappeared in a struggle among the leading politicians for the distinction of inaugurating the change. To the Hon. J. C. Pope is due the honour of building the Island Railway; and to him with Messrs. Haythorne, Laird, Haviland and Howland also belongs the still greater honour of arranging the terms of union.

Other Events of the Decade, 1860-70.—The War of Secession, which disturbed the United States for four years, did not pass without producing anxiety in Canada and the adjoining provinces. Slavery on the plantations of the South, had long been the disgrace of the Republic. For years its abolition had been advocated by the Republicans of the North, when the election of Abraham Lincoln, by which the civil power fell into the hands of the Abolitionists, presented the opportunity for stamping out the evil. But the planters of the South, having determined to shun the influence which might injure their personal wealth, led into secession and rebellion eleven of the States,—North and South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Georgia, Texas, Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee,—and chose Jefferson Davis as their President. In the campaign of 1861, the New Confederacy gained the advantage, for the fall of Fort Sumter in April, and the battle of Bull's Run fought in July were both Southern victories.

Early in the same year Britain proclaimed its neutrality in the quarrel, though the 'cotton lords' of Lancashire and Glasgow uttered loud complaints, when the Northern fleet blockaded the Southern ports, and when, for want of cotton, thousands of mill-operatives were thrown out of employment. The distress and general depression of trade created sympathy for the South, which, with the success of British steamers in running the blockade, stirred up a counter-irritation in the North against England, and a steady watch for a reprisal. Then occurred the 'Trent Affair.' This arose from the capture of two Confederate agents from the cabin of the British mail steamer, the *Trent*, by one of the Northern war-ships.

Such an outrage committed in mid-ocean, raised a violent excitement in England. The Queen, through her advisers, demanded instant reparation. Troops poured into Canada, to have their numbers swelled by hundreds of colonial volunteers. St. John, Halifax and Quebec repaired their defences, and gun-boats were placed on the coast. But in the midst of these warlike preparations, the two Confederates were set free by the Federal government, with the explanation that their capture had not been premeditated.

The second campaign was indecisive; for while General Grant took Fort Donelson, and Admiral Farragut, New Orleans, the battles of Richmond, Bull's Run, and Fredericksburg were won by the Southern generals. M'Clellan had met Lee in bloody conflict at Antietam, but that contest, so disastrous to both armies, proved as indecisive as the campaign.

During the third year, Britain was again involved on account of the ravages of the *Alabama*, a war-ship built in Britain for the South. The damage done gave rise to the 'Alabama Claims' settled by the last Washington Treaty. The impending storm which Canada expected to fall upon it in retaliation, urged the colonists to provide a better means of defence, for it was well known that the North was exultant, over the death of 'Stonewall' Jackson on the battle-field of Chancellorsville, the capture of Vicksburg by Grant, and the total rout of Lee's army at Gettysburg.

The fourth campaign saw Grant before Richmond, and Sherman in Georgia, preparing for his devastating march to the sea. Meanwhile, many of the Confederates who had taken refuge in Canada, collected in small bands near the boundary-line. At one time, they seized on Lake Erie two small vessels belonging to the North; at another they beset St. Alban's in Vermont, and retreated only after blood had been shed. Taken prisoners on their return to Canada, they remained in custody for some time, subject to a demand for their extradition, but were

eventually set at liberty, notwithstanding the threatening attitude of the North.

The spring of 1865 brought the war to an end. In April, Richmond was taken, with the surrender of the part of Lee's army that survived the three days' carnage. A month after Abraham Lincoln's assassination, Jefferson Davis was shut up a prisoner in Fort Munroe; and a few days more placed the South without a Confederate soldier, at the mercy of the Northern conquerors. In the same year, the news reached Canada of an intention to abrogate the Reciprocity Treaty. Messrs. Galt and Howland appeared at Washington to open negotiations for its renewal, while Joseph Howe tried to promote a good feeling between the two nations by delivering one of his most elegant orations at the Detroit Convention of merchants from Canada and the United States. But all was in vain. The demands at Washington were too exacting, and the treaty expired at the specified time.

The Fenians at this time, finding that the task of establishing a republic in Ireland was one far beyond their resources, undertook to conquer New Brunswick and Canada. From Portland a band of them sailed for Eastport, intending to cross the St. Croix to feed on the industries of St. Andrew's and St. Stephen. But when they learned that British troops and St. John volunteers were there to meet them, they quickly turned their backs on the land they had proposed to subdue. At Fort Erie, on the Niagara River, their ignorance changed a slight success over two companies of volunteers into a defeat, so that from the capturing of forts in Upper Canada, they were quite content to adapt their talents to the robbing of farm-houses on the borders of Lower Canada. One day the vagabonds ranged themselves in battle array near the frontier, where, in the act of running from the rumoured approach of the red coats, their leaders fell into the hands of the United States' Marshal. Several of the 'benighted' were tried in Canada and sentenced to be hanged; but, liberated after a few years imprisonment, they disappear-

ed from fame, when they found the whole brotherhood protected from themselves by the President's proclamation which forbade further attempts at invasion.

In August of 1869, Prince Arthur, the third of Queen Victoria's sons, and now Duke of Connaught, visited Halifax, St. John, and Charlottetown, to be received with loyal shouts as loud as those which had greeted his brother, nine years before.

The opening of the year 1870 was one of sorrow to many in the Lower Provinces. On the 28th of January, the *City of Boston*, a mail steamer for Britain, left Halifax with a number of prominent merchants in her saloon, on their way to buy in the London spring market. Till March, no tidings came of the vessel's safety. At length a telegram was received announcing its arrival at Queenstown. This brought joy to the city and the whole country; but it was the joy before despair, for the message was false. Nothing was ever heard of the fated ship.

Events since 1870 include the inauguration of a free school system in New Brunswick, the ratification of the Washington Treaty, and the change of government consequent on the 'Pacific Scandal.' Earl Dufferin arrived in Canada as successor to Lord Lisgar, in 1872. Hon. Adams G. Archibald became Lieutenant-Governor of Nova Scotia on the lamented death of Hon. Joseph Howe, in 1873; Sir Robert Hodgson resumed in the same year the governorship of Prince Edward Island, which he had formerly held for three years; Hon. S. L. Tilley was appointed Governor of New Brunswick, when Hon. L. A. Wilmot retired in 1874.

CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY DURING THE THIRD PERIOD.

WITHIN the past fifty years, as recorded by recent volumes of reports and statistics, the industries of the provinces have undergone a development directly proportionate to the activity and increase of their population. As the fur-trade declined, fishing, farming and lumbering received more attention. The fisheries alone yield over eight millions of dollars, to be further increased by the system of protection adopted by the Marine Department at Ottawa. The more men kept to one branch of industry as a means of living, the more rapidly did the country advance: nowhere has the mixed labour of farming and fishing, or farming and lumbering, produced very prosperous results. Fruit growing, in some districts, has been added to the usual farm work, by which a harvest of thousands of barrels of apples, with quantities of plums, strawberries and grapes, has supplied many markets within and beyond the provinces. Cheese factories have been established in some of the agricultural centres. Everywhere sheep and cattle rearing, with the surplus crops of wheat, oats and barley, has realised a richer return, as railways and good roads brought the farmers nearer to a ready market. Still, the export of lumber, chiefly confined to New Brunswick, exceeds any of the other exports from the forest, sea, and land.

The vastness of the mineral wealth of the country has stirred up capitalists to make it of service to the world. The coal mines of Cape Breton, which have a history of their own, bring annually to the light three millions of dollars. There are also extensive mines in Pictou and Cumberland, while in New Brunswick there is the great coal-field around Grand Lake which has still to be explored by the miner. From the Albertite, a rich deposit of bituminous coal found in Albert County, large quantities of oil have been produced. Iron ore has also been discovered in the coal districts, which the smelting works at Woodstock, at Acadia Mines, and in Pictou, though not all successful, have proved to be of the best quality. A million dollars' worth of gold has been crushed from the quartz of Halifax and Guysborough, and small quantities have been washed from the bed of the Tobique. Manganese, antimony, copper and even silver exist, to a greater or less degree, in many districts; gypsum, limestone, sandstone, marble and granite are all abundant and add to the commerce of the country.

Manufactures have produced a change in the character of the imports: Sam Slick's satire has lost the bitterness of its sneer at the country's helplessness. Few villages are without their tanneries. Boot and shoe factories, stove foundries, carriage factories, all flourish in the larger of the towns. Cotton mills bring wealth to St. John. Machine and engine works afford employment for hundreds in Halifax, Moncton, and St. John; while amidst all this energy, shipbuilding still continues prosperous.

Much of the progress of the provinces in later times may be traced

to the improvement in railway connection. The oldest railway in Nova Scotia is that between Halifax and Windsor; in New Brunswick, that between St. John and Shediac. The former has been extended to Yarmouth. The Intercolonial runs from Halifax through Truro, Amherst, Moncton, Newcastle, and Campbelton to Quebec. From Truro a branch runs to Pictou, and old Louisbourg again assumes an importance, through the line connecting it with the Pictou line at New Glasgow. St. John is within three hours of Fredericton by the railway and its branch, which, extended by the Riviere du Loup line, will reach Quebec; while the main line from St. John to Maine has branches running north and south to Woodstock and Houlton, to St. Andrew's and St. Stephen. Prince Edward Island also has its railway of two hundred miles, running from one end of the province to the other.

The progress in education has reached every community. The number of colleges is greater than in other countries of the same population, probably greater than the necessity demands: Nova Scotia has five of these institutions, New Brunswick two, Prince Edward Island, two. *King's College*, Windsor, was incorporated in 1802 with an endowment of £1000 per annum from Britain and £400 from the Assembly, in addition to 29,000 acres of land. Now it receives only $2,400 from the Legislature, the Imperial grant having been withdrawn. *Dalhousie College*, Halifax, was incorporated in 1820, with its original revenue derived from $30,000 of the Castine fund, which has since been increased by endowments collected by the Presbyterians. In connection with it, there is a medical and theological school. *New Brunswick University*, Fredericton, under its old name of King's College was recognized by Royal Charter in 1828. It received its present name in 1854 from a Commission appointed to reform its constitution and to establish it on a non-sectarian basis. *Acadia College*, Wolfville, was established by the Baptists in 1840; *St. Mary's College*, Halifax, by the Roman Catholics in 1841; *Mount Allison College*, Sackville, by the Wesleyans in 1843; *St. Dunstan's College*, Prince Edward Island, by the Roman Catholics in 1855; *Prince of Wales' College*, Charlottetown, in 1860.

Nova Scotia first took a special interest in common school education in 1811, when the Legislature granted twenty-five pounds to districts having thirty families. The division of the province into school districts was arranged in 1826; and in 1855 Dr. Forrester opened the Normal School at Truro as Principal of it, and Superintendent of Education for the province. Free schools were established in 1864.

New Brunswick arranged its first School Act in 1833, which provided a Board of Trustees for each parish, and a supplement of twenty pounds to the teacher. After various changes, the Assembly drew up a law in 1847, appointing county inspectors and establishing the Training School at St. John, In 1854 when Mr. Fisher became Superintendent, another step was taken in raising teachers' salaries, and granting three hundred dollars to superior schools. The present system of free education was inaugurated in 1871. In Nova Scotia and New Brunswick there is one Academy or Grammar School for each county.

Prince Edward Island opened its first public school at Charlottetown in 1821. Sixteen years after, Mr. John McNeil, as first school visitor or inspector, issued his first report. The Act establishing free schools was passed in 1852: the Normal School was organized in 1856. There is now a visitor for each county.

General Government.—Before a general principle for all the provinces can become the law of the land, it must pass the vote of the House of Commons as well as that of the Senate, and receive the consent of the Governor-General. The *Governor-General* is the representative of the Queen by whom he is appointed: his salary, which is paid by the Canadian government, amounts to $50,000. The *Senate* consists of 77 members, who have the title of 'Honorable.' The *House of Commons* has 206 members. The advisers of the Governor-General form the Ministry or Privy Council.

Local Government.—Each of the Maritime Provinces has a Lieutenant-Governor, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. The first is appointed by the Governor-General of the Dominion, the second by the Lieutenant-Governor, and the third elected by the people. In Nova Scotia, the Legislative Council has 18 members, the House of Assembly 38 members. In New Brunswick the numbers are 21 and 41; in Prince Edward Island, 13 and 30; in Newfoundland, 12 and 30. The advisers of the Lieutenant-Governor of each province form the Executive Council. The revenue of the three provinces, which have entered the union, is made up by a subsidy from the general Government at Ottawa, the sale of public lands, stumpage on lumber, and royalty on minerals.

DISTINGUISHED LOYALISTS.

George Duncan Ludlow—son of a New York colonist—first an apothecary's apprentice—then a student at law—Judge of New York Supreme Court—at the close of the war, came to Carleton—made Chief Justice of New Brunswick in his fiftieth year—Died 1808.

James Putnam—a native of Massachusetts—graduate of Harvard—practised law in Worcester, then in Halifax—appointed Attorney-General of Nova Scotia—member of New Brunswick's first Council and Judge of its Supreme Court—Died 1789.

Jonathan Odell—a New England clergyman and political writer—appointed chaplain of the Royal army—practised medicine during the war—made member of New Brunswick's Council and Provincial Secretary.

Joshua Upham—son of a distinguished physician in Brookfield Mass.—a graduate of Harvard—Colonel of Dragoons in British army during the war—*aide-de-camp* to Lord Amherst—lived in King's County—one of the first Judges—Died 1808.

John Saunders—born in Virginia—master of a Troop of Horse during the war—afterwards studied law at the Middle Temple, Lon-

don—made a New Brunswick Judge in his thirty-sixth year—promoted to the Chief Justiceship in 1822—Died 1834.

Ward Chipman—born in Massachusetts—graduate of Harvard—New Brunswick's first Solicitor-General—held many important offices—first Recorder of St. John—British agent under the Jay Treaty—raised to the Bench in 1809—administrator of the government—Died 1824.

Jacob Bailey—born at Rowley, Mass., of poor parentage—a student at Harvard—ordained a missionary in London—lived as such in Maine for eighteen years—removed to Halifax in 1779—wrote a humorous account of the privations of Loyalists and other letters—Died Rector of Annapolis in 1808.

Sampson S. Blowers—born in Boston, 1743—educated at Harvard College—for some time a lawyer in Boston—Judge of the Vice-Admiralty Court in 1779—retired to England during the war to return as Solicitor General of New York—removed to Halifax in 1785, where he assumed the duties of Attorney General, and Speaker of the Assembly—first a member of the Council—then Chief-Justice and President—Died in his ninety-ninth year.

Sir Brenton Haliburton—born at Rhode Island, 1775,—sent to jail in his sixth year for raising a Loyalist cry in the streets—educated in England, whence his father removed to Halifax—a lawyer in Halifax—then a soldier in the Royal Fusiliers—in 1805 raised to the Bench—in 1833 became Chief Justice—Died aged eighty-five.

OTHER BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES AND EXPLANATIONS.

Edward, Duke of Kent—fourth son of George III., born at Buckingham Palace in 1767—educated in Hanover—first Colonel of the Seventh Regiment of Foot, at Gibraltar—assisted in the capture of Martinique and Gaudaloupe—arrived in Halifax, 1794—built a beautiful residence on Bedford Basin—took his seat in the House of Lords, 1799—Governor of Gibraltar—Died at Kensington, 1820.

Sir Colin Campbell (Lord Clyde)—born in Glasgow, 1792, son of a cabinet maker—entered the army as ensign, 1808—a soldier of the Spanish war, and the expedition to the United States in 1814—Governor of Nova Scotia in 1834—served in China and the Punjaub—took an active part in the Crimean War—drove back the Russian cavalry at Balaklava—subdued the Indian mutiny—made a Peer of the realm, 1858.

Samuel G. W. Archibald—born in 1777, the son of Truro's first magistrate—first a Stewiacke farmer—then a student at Harvard—practised law in Halifax—representative in the Assembly for forty years—appointed Chief Justice of Prince Edward Island in 1824—Master of the Rolls for Nova Scotia in 1841—an attractive orator and shrewd statesman—Died 1846.

Thomas C. Haliburton—a native of Windsor, where he was educated—a lawyer at Annapolis, of which he was elected representative

—Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas and Judge of Supreme Court—wrote *History of Nova Scotia*,—author of *Sam Slick* and other publications—retired to England in 1856—became member of the Imperial Parliament—Died 1865, in his sixty-ninth year.

John Young—a native of Falkirk, Scotland,—educated at Glasgow University for the ministry—came to Nova Scotia in 1814—elected member for Sydney—author of the letters of *Agricola*—established a model farm at Willow Park—father of Sir William Young—Died, 1837, at the age of sixty-five.

Edmund Burke—an Irishman by birth—at first priest in Kildare parish—afterwards missionary among Indians in Canada—wrote graphic letters about his labours, and received a pension of £300 from Britain—made first Catholic Bishop of Nova Scotia in 1816—wrote three volumes of descriptive and controversial tracts—Died in 1820, aged seventy-eight.

Abraham Gesner—son of a Loyalist, and native of Cornwallis—an industrious naturalist—a student of medicine under Sir Ashley Cooper and Abernethy—made the first geological survey of New Brunswick in 1835—wrote several interesting Reports—and made a collection of minerals for the museum in St. John—discovered a practical mode for preparing coal oils—Died at Halifax in 1864.

Alexander Forrester—born in Scotland 1805—a student at Edinburgh University—minister of Sorbie, Wigton, until the disruption—Free Church pastor in Paisley, where he also conducted science classes—accepted a call from Halifax and there established the Free Church College—Superintendent of Education till 1864—and Principal of Normal School—the pioneer of educational improvement in Nova Scotia—author of *The Teacher's Text Book*—Died in New York.

Joseph Howe—born near Halifax in 1804, son of a Loyalist—first a printer's boy—then editor of the *Nova Scotian*—the leader in the strife for constitutional government—his life the history of the country—author of three volumes of speeches and pamphlets—a versatile writer and popular orator—Died Lieutenant-Governor of his native province in 1873.

John W. Dawson—native of Pictou—finished his education at Edinburgh—Superintendent of Education for Nova Scotia—member of the commission to enquire into the condition of collegiate education in New Brunswick—Principal of McGill College, Montreal—wrote *Acadian Geology* and other useful works.

Ward Chipman, Junr.—born in St. John—studied law in London—a lawyer in St. John—succeeded to several offices held by his father—member for St. John County—Speaker of the Assembly—raised to the Bench in 1824, at his father's death—agent for Britain in the settlement of border difficulties—made Chief Justice in 1834—Died 1851.

Lemuel Allan Wilmot—of Loyalist descent—born at Fredericton where he was educated, and where he practised as a lawyer—

originator of the movement for responsible government in New Brunswick—Attorney-General and Judge of the Supreme Court—appointed Governor of his native province in 1867.

Charles Fisher—born in Fredericton—D. C. L. of New Brunswick University, in which institution he was educated—associated with Wilmot in the struggle for popular government—member of the Dominion Parliament—Judge of the Supreme Court.

Samuel Leonard Tilley—of Loyalist descent—born at Gagetown on the St. John River—druggist in St. John—for many years, leader of the Liberal party in New Brunswick—advocated measures for extension of franchise and vote by ballot—led the movement for Confederation in New Brunswick—Dominion Minister of Finance—Governor of New Brunswick.

Donald Macdonald—native of Perth, Scotland—educated at St. Andrew's University—a missionary in the Highlands—minister in Cape Breton—then in Prince Edward Island—crowds flocked to listen to his eloquence—wrote several evangelical works—published collections of poems and hymns—respected everywhere—Died, 1867, in his eighty-fifth year.

Edward Whalen—an Irishman from County Mayo—a printer under Joseph Howe, for whom he wrote many editorials—came to Prince Edward Island when eighteen years of age—a popular orator and politician—Died 1867.

George Coles—born in Prince Edward Island, 1810—member for Queen's County in 1842—leader of the movement for responsible government—framed the education law for the Island—Died, 1875.

Treaty of Paris (Second) in 1783 recognized the independence for the United States and fixed the boundary line definitely for Canada but indefinitely for New Brunswick. By it also, peace was restored between England and France.

Treaty of Ghent, in 1814, decided that Britain and the United States should give up the conquests during the war, that the boundary line between New Brunswick and Maine should be determined by commissioners, and that both powers should try to abolish the traffic in slaves.

The Casual and Territorial Revenues form that part of the provincial income derived from the sale of new lands. Previous to 1832, the House of Assembly in New Brunswick had no control over the expenditure or management of the Crown Land Department. The Crown Lands were under the inspection of the 'Chief Commissioner,' who was responsible for his official acts to the governor alone. When Governor Campbell refused to listen to the demand of the House of Assembly, for a financial report from the Chief Commission, a deputation was sent with an address to the Colonial Office. The king granted the right of supervision of the Crown Lands to the Assembly.

The Civil List Bill was the sequel to the excitement over the

Casual and Territorial Revenues. According to it, the Assembly agreed to pay the officials whose names were on the Civil List, out of part (£14,500) of the above Revenues. The stubbornness of Sir Archibald Campbell, who dreaded the extravagance of the House, raised another storm. He refused to give his consent to the Bill. A deputation was sent to London. Sir John Harvey was appointed to succeed Sir Archibald, and readily, by his signature, gave the additional power to the Legislature.

Ashburton Treaty, in 1842, settled the dispute between New Brunswick and Maine over the boundary line. Of the twelve thousand acres in the disputed territory, New Brunswick received five thousand.

Repeal of the Navigation Laws, in 1849, was carried in the British House of Commons after much excitement. The vote created dissatisfaction in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, especially among the ship-owners, who were now obliged to compete with the United States on equal terms in the lumber trade. At first, it was proposed to open the coasting as well as the foreign trade, but as this would produce a diminution of the revenue, the proposition was rejected.

The Treaty of Washington, in 1871, permitted fishermen of the United States to fish on the coast of Canada, and Canadians to fish on the coasts of the United States, providing for a commission to settle the amount to be paid to Canada for the privilege. It granted free trade between the two countries in fish and fish-oil. By it, the navigation of the St. Lawrence and its canals was thrown open, for the privilege of passing goods in bond from the United States' ports to any part of Canada. The export duty on American lumber, passing down the St. John from the Aroostook district, was also abolished.

PRINCIPAL DATES—THIRD PERIOD.

The Stamp Act,.....1765
St. John Island a separate province,.....1770
War of Independence begins, 1775
Second Treaty of Paris,.....1783
Landing of the Loyalists,.....1783
Duke of Kent visits Halifax,..1794
War with the United States,..1812
Treaty of Ghent,.....1814
The Miramichi Great Fire,....1825
The Frontier dispute,.....1827
Joseph Howe's first election, 1837
Earl of Durham's Report,.....1839
The boundary dispute settled,1842
Responsible Government,.....1848
Navigation Laws repealed,....1849
Major Robinson's Report,.....1849
Reciprocity Treaty,.....1854
The Land Commission of P. E. Island,.....1860
Visit of the Prince of Wales,..1860
The Trent Affair,.....1861
Convention at Charlottetown,1864
Dominion Day, (1st July).....1867
The Red River Expedition,...1870
Treaty of Washington,.....1871
British Columbia enters the Union,.....1871
Prince Edward Island enters the Union,.....1873

GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES.

Aix-la-Chapelle, a town near the Rhine in Rhenish Prussia, Germ'y.
Avalon, a peninsula in N'fld formed by Trinity and Placentia Bays.
Antietam, another name for Sharpsburg in Maryland.
Antigonish, one of the northern counties of Nova Scotia.
Arichat, on Isle Madame, which lies south of Cape Breton.

Basque Provinces, in Spain near the angle of the Bay of Biscay.
Bay of Bulls, twelve miles south of St. John's, Newfoundland.
Bay Chaleur, northern boundary of New Brunswick.
Belfast, a settlement near Point Prim, Prince Edward Island.
Belleisle, the straits between Newfoundland and Labrador.
Blenheim, a village on the Danube in Bavaria, Germany.
Bonavista, a Cape in Newfoundland at the entrance to Trinity Bay.
Bras d'Or, the lake within the island of Cape Breton.
Breda, a town in North Brabant, Holland.
Bristol, in England on the R. Avon, tributary to the Severn.
Brittany, province in the north-west of France.
Bull's Run was fought near the River Potomac.

Cape Farewell, to the south of Greenland.
Cape Finisterre, on the north-west of Spain.
Cape Sable, southern extremity of Nova Scotia.
Cap-Rouge, promontory at the mouth of River St. Lawrence.
Caraquet in Gloucester County, New Brunswick.
Carbonear, a town on Conception Bay, Newfoundland.
Castine, near the mouth of the Penobscot, Maine.
Charlotte, a county in New Brunswick.
Chebucto, old name for Halifax Harbour.
Chedabucto, a bay on the coast of Guysborough County Nova Scotia.
Chester, a village in Lunenburg County, Nova Scotia.
Cornwallis, on Minas Basin, Nova Scotia.
Cobequid, an arm of the Basin of Minas, Nova Scotia.
Culloden, a small plateau six miles from Inverness, Scotland.

Dalhousie, the most northern town of New Brunswick.
Detroit, a U. S. town on the channel uniting Lakes St. Clair & Erie.
Dieppe, a seaport in France, north-east of Havre.

Eastport, in the State of Maine, south of St. Andrew's, N. B.

Falkirk, a town near the head of the Firth of Forth, Scotland.
Falmouth, a settlement on the River Avon, near Windsor, N. S.
Ferryland, thirty-five miles from St. John's, Nfl'd, south-east coast.
Florence, a town in Italy on the River Arno.
Fredericksburg, in Virginia, north of Richmond.
Ft. Niagara, on the right bank of R. Niagara as it flows into L. Ont.
Ft. Sumter, on Charleston harbour, South Carolina.

Gabarus Bay, on the south-east coast of Cape Breton.
Gaspe, eastern extremity of Quebec Province, opposite Anticosti.
Genoa, a city in the north of Italy on the Gulf of Genoa.

Gettysburg, near the River Potomac.
Grand Pre', in the northern corner of King's County, Nova Scotia.
Granville, a village opposite Annapolis.

Hanover, one of the principalities in Germany.
Havre, a seaport in France, at the mouth of the River Seine.
Hispaniola, one of the West Indies, next in size to Cuba.
Horton, in King's County, Nova Scotia.

Jemseg, on the St. John, at the outlet from Grand Lake, N. B.

Kennebec, a river in the State of Maine.
Kittery Point, on the Hudson River, New York.

La Hâve, a River and Cape in Lunenburg County, Nova Scotia.
Liverpool, seaport in Queen's County, Nova Scotia.
Louisbourg, on the south-east coast of Cape Breton.

Machias, a seaport in Maine on a river of the same name.
Madras, a seaport capital on the east coast of Hindostan.
Magaguadavic, a river in Charlotte County, New Brunswick.
Malagash, Maleguash or Merliguesche, old name for Lunenburg.
Martinique, most northern island of Windward group, West Indies.
Menstrie, a village in Clackmannanshire, Scotland.
Miquelon, an island south of Newfoundland.
Mongolian, belonging to the Mongols of eastern Asia.
Miscou, an island at the entrance to the Bay Chaleur.
Mount Desert, in Maine, near the mouth of the Penobscot.

Nantes, a seaport of France, 30 miles from the mouth of the Loire.
Nashwaak, the fort which formerly stood nearly opposite Frederict'n.
Navarre, a province in Spain, south of the Pyrenees.
New Dublin, a village in Lunenburg County, Nova Scotia.
New Orleans, a city at the mouth of the Mississippi.
Norridgouac, near the Kennebec.

Oromocto, a tributary of the St. John, below Fredericton.
Oudenarde, a town in the province of East Flanders, Belgium.

Palos, between mouths of Guadiana and Guadalquivir in Spain.
Parrtown, the old name of St. John, New Brunswick.
Pavia, near the junction of the Ticino with the River Po.
Pemaquid, between the Kennebec and Penobscot, State of Maine.
Penobscot, a river in the State of Maine.
Petitcodiac, a river flowing into Chiegnecto Bay.
Placentia, on Placentia Bay, 70 miles from St. John's, Newfoundl'd.
Plymouth, in Massachusetts, near Cape Cod.
Point Prim, a Cape about 15 miles south-east of Charlottet'n, P. E. I.

Ramilies, a village twenty-eight miles from Brussels, Belgium.
Rhode Island, a small New England state between Conn. and Mass.
Richibucto, the chief town in Kent County, New Brunswick.
Richmond, in Virginia, on the James River.
Rochefort, a naval arsenal in France, north of the Gironde River.
Rossignol, former name for Liverpool, Queen's County, N. S.
Rouen, a town in France, on the River Seine, below Paris.
Ryswick, a village near the Hague in Holland.

San Salvador, one of the Bahama Islands.
Saracens, a name applied to the Mohammedans of Syria & Palestine.
Sault St. Louis, the rapids near south corner of Montreal Island.
Scandinavia, Norway and Sweden united.
Scoodiac, the old name for the River St. Croix, New Brunswick.
Shelburne, a county in the south of Nova Scotia.
Seville, a city on the Guadalquivir, in Spain.
Shepody, the estuary of the Petitcodiac.
Shubenacadie, a river flowing into Cobequid Bay, Nova Scotia.
Sierra Leone, near the Grain Coast, west coast of Africa.
Spanish River, old name for Sydney, Cape Breton.
St. Anne's, in Victoria County, Cape Breton, on St. Anne's Bay.
St. Croix, the river which separates New Brunswick from Maine.
St. Malo, a seaport opposite Jersey, one of the Channel Islands.
St. Mary's Bay, in the County of Digby, Nova Scotia.
St. Pierre, an island south of Newfoundland.
St. Peter's, at the southern entrance to the Bras d'Or, Cape Breton.
Tadoussac, at the mouth of Saguenay, a tributary of the St. Lawrence.
Tonquin, a state south of China.
Trinidad, one of the West Indies, north of the mouth of the Orinoco.
Utrecht, a town in Holland, near Amsterdam.
Venice, a city at the northern extremity of the Adriatic Sea.
Yorktown, in Virginia, near the mouth of the James River.

THE FOUR CAPITALS.

Halifax is situated upon one of the safest harbours on the Atlantic seaboard. Ships of every size can be moored at its wharfs. The principal places of interest are the Citadel, the Dockyard, the Province Building, the Museum, Dalhousie and St. Mary's Colleges. It is the central station for British war-ships, engaged on the coasts of America, the seat of the Provincial University, and the eastern terminus of the Intercolonial Railway.

Fredericton stands upon a level area of land, about eighty-five miles from the mouth of the River St. John. The slopes, which range nearly parallel with the river, form a back ground to the picture of its streets, hotels, factories, schools and churches. The objects of special interest to visitors are the Provincial Buildings, the University, the Cathedral, and the Training School.

Charlottetown occupies the point of land formed by the confluence of three rivers, and looks out into Hillsborough Bay. It exports large quantities of fish and agricultural produce. The principal buildings are the Province Buildings, the Prince of Wales' College, the Wesleyan School, and the St. Dunstan's College.

St. John's is protected by the high hills which encircle its harbour. It is the centre of the Newfoundland seal and cod fishing, and from it are annually exported large quantities of oil and dried fish. Being the nearest American city to Ireland, it is the first port of call for the mail steamers which run between Britain and Nova Scotia. Several fine public buildings adorn its streets.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

Introduction:—**1.** Name the divisions of British America.—Does British America include more or less territory than the Dominion of Canada?—How and when was the latter consolidated. **2.** Why was the western continent named America?—What was the origin of the names, Canada, Quebec, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, Acadia, New Brunswick, Ontario, and Cape Breton? **3.** Compare British America with the other states of the world.—To what events does its history specially refer? **4.** What name was applied to the aborigines of Canada, and why?—Enumerate and describe some of their manners, customs, and peculiarities, in connection with their feasts, ceremonies, councils, language and religion.—In what way did they show their mechanical ingenuity?—What was meant by 'wampum' and the 'calumet of peace'?

FIRST PERIOD.

Chapter I:—**1.** Tell all you know about the Norsemen who lived on Iceland **2.** Sketch the career of Eric, the Red.—Give the names of his sons, and describe their voyages separately.—Who were Gardar, Ingolf, Biorne, and Thorfinne.

Chapter II:—**3.** Write a short biography of Christopher Columbus.—Who assisted him to set out on his first voyage?—Describe that voyage in detail. **4.** Who was Marco Polo, and where were the places, Genoa, Palos and Hispaniola. **5.** What induced John and Sebastian Cabot to sail for America, and how did they obtain their commission? Describe their voyage to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and name all the places which they visited before their return to England. **6.** What voyages were made and by whom, between the visits of Cabot and Cartier?—How far did Cartier explore the Gulf of St. Lawrence in his first voyage? **7** Describe Cartier's second voyage minutely.—Where were Stadacone and Hochelaga?—Who was Donnacona? **8.** all you know about Cartier's third voyage.

Chapter III:—**9.** Give a concise account of Roberval's expedition and settlement.—Why was his scheme a failure?—**10.** What was the name of Roberval's niece?—Tell the story of her fate. **11.** What was the condition of the fish and fur trade in 1578? **12.** Sketch the life of Sir Humphrey Gilbert. Mention especially the events of his rule on Newfoundland. **13.** Who was Marquis de la Roche?—What were the powers granted to him by the King of France?—Describe Sable Island, and tell the story of its first colonists.—Who were Chetodel, Pontgrave, and Chauvin.

Chapter IV:—**14.** What was the condition of France when Henry of Navarre was crowned its king. **15.** Describe De Mont's voyage to the St. Croix, and the settlement he there erected. **16.** Give a short account of Poutrincourt, Lescarbot, and Biencourt.—**17.** Tell what you know of the early days of Port Royal previous to its first siege. **18.** In what connection do you remember the names of Membertou, Guercheville and La Fleche?

Chapter V:—**19.** Sketch the life of Sir Wm. Alexander.—How was he associated with Sir David Kirke. **20.** Give an account of the career of Claude De Latour. **21.** How was the jurisdiction of Nova Scotia affected by the Treaty of St. Germain's?—Give the date of this Treaty. **22.** Narrate the events arising from the strife between De Latour and Charnise. **23.** Describe the siege of Fort Latour. **24.** Who was Nicholas Denys, and what did he do for Cape Breton? **25.** Why did Oliver Cromwell interfere in Acadian affairs?—Narrate the events which arose from this interference. **26.** How would you characterize the rule of Sir Thomas Temple?—Why was he deprived of his property?

Chapter VI:—**27.** How are the names of Guy and Whitbourne connected with the history of Newfoundland? **28.** Write a short sketch of Sir George Calvert, in your own words.—Why did he leave Newfoundland? **29.** Sketch the career of Sir David Kirke. **30.** What events around Placentia culminated in the siege of St. John's by D'Iberville?—Describe that siege and its effects. **31.** Give the date of the Treaty of Ryswick and explain its terms. **32.** Write a short biography of Amerigo Vespucci. **33.** Explain the title, Baronet of Nova Scotia.

SECOND PERIOD.

Chapter I:—**1.** Give the dates of the Treaties of Breda and Utrecht.—What was the condition of Acadia during that time? **2.** Describe the siege of Port Royal, by Sir William Phips. **3.** Name the last three French governors of Acadia, and compare their characters.—Give a sketch of the attempt on Fort Nashwaak. **4.** Who was Colonel Church?—Why is his name mentioned in Nova Scotian history? **5.** Narrate the events of the Indian War which ended with the destruction of Norridgouac. **6.** Who was Paul Mascarene?—Sketch his life and character.

Chapter II:—**7.** Describe the ruins of Louisbourg as they are to be seen at the present day.—Draw a map of its harbour, and mark on it the position of the city, the Grand Battery, Lighthouse Point, Point Rochfort and the Island Battery. **8.** Trace the origin of the project which founded the city of Louisbourg.—How was it governed?

9. Narrate the circumstances which induced Shirley to fit out his armament against Louisbourg. **10.** Write out an account of the siege.—What were the terms of the surrender?—What honours were conferred on the victors? **11.** In what way did the government of France show that they wished to regain Acadia.—Give the date of the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and enumerate its terms.

Chapter III:—12. How did the English attend to Nova Scotian interests previous to 1749?—Who founded Halifax, Dartmouth, and Lunenburg?—Describe the events connected with these settlements. **13.** Name the first three Nova Scotian governors after 1749, and compare their work and characters. **14.** Enumerate and sketch the principal events during Governor Lawrence's time.

Chapter IV:—15. Who was Joseph De Loutre?—How did he annoy the English settlers of Nova Scotia?—**16.** Draw a map of the Isthmus, and mark on it the Missiquash, the Tantramar, Sackville, and the sites of Beaubassin, Beausejour, and Fort Lawrence.—Describe in your own words the positions of these places. **17.** Narrate the events in order, which made the Isthmus of Chiegnecto the scene of a struggle in arms between the English and French. **18.** Describe the siege of Beausejour.—Who were La Corne and Vergor?—What was the fate of De Loutre?

Chapter V:—19. Write a short account of the principal settlements occupied by the Acadians previous to the date of their expulsion.—Explain the necessity for their expulsion, and give your own opinion about it. **20.** Describe the scene at Grand Pre, when Winslow told the Acadians that they must leave the country. **21.** What is the history of the Acadians after their expulsion? What do you know of the two sides to the story of the Acadians of Grand Pre?

Chapter VI:—22. How long did Louisbourg remain in English hands, after its first siege?—Give the reasons why it was given up, **23.** What British statesman proposed the second siege of Louisbourg, and what generals did he appoint to fulfil the task? **24.** Describe the second siege.—Why was the city destroyed?

Chapter VII:—25. Give a connected account of the early history of St. John Island.—Where was Fort Le Joie? Tell all you know about it. **26.** What was the origin of the settlements on Bay Chaleur and the Miramichi?—Who destroyed them in 1758? **27.** Where was Fort Frederick, and what was its origin? 28. Give an account of the early contest between the settlers on Newfoundland, and the fish merchants.—Who were the fishing admirals? 29. Who was Admiral Walker? 30, Describe Haussonville's raid on Newfoundland. 31. Write a biography of General Wolfe. 32. What were the terms of the Treaty of Paris?

THIRD PERIOD.

Chapter I:—1. Explain the Stamp Act, and narrate the events which led to its enactment. 2. What was the origin of the names Republican and Loyalist in connection with American history? 3. How did the Stamp Act affect Nova Scotia. 4. Narrate the events which happened in Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and St. John Island during the war of Independence.—What were the principal dates of the war? 5. How were the Loyalists treated when the war ended? 6. Tell what you know of the settlements on the St. John River previous to 1783.—Describe the founding of St. John. 7. Give a short sketch of New Brunswick connected with the enterprise of its people, in its earliest days. 8. When was Cape Breton made a county of Nova Scotia, when a separate province?—Who was Major Desbarres, and what did he he do for Cape Breton? 9. When was Patterson appointed Governor of St John Island?—Enumerate the events of his rule. 10. What were the various causes which led to the immigration of Highlanders.

Chapter II:—11. What do you remember with respect to the visits of the Duke of Clarence, and Duke of Kent? 12. Who were the Maroons, and why were some of them sent to Nova Scotia? 13. Give the names of the governors of Nova Scotia up to the time of Sir Colin Campbell. 14. Describe the naval duel between the Shannon and the Chesapeake. 15. Who was 'Agricola',—and what did Lord Dalhousie do for education in Nova Scotia? 16. Write out a sketch of the political strife during the rule of Sir Peregrine Maitland. 17. Give an account of Cape Breton, while it remained a separate province. 18. What notes can you make on New Brunswick history, when General Smythe was governor?—What events are associated with the name of Chipman? 19. Write out a sketch of the Miramichi Fire. 20. Name the governors of Prince Edward Island from 1799 till Sir John Harvey arrived.—Compare the rule of Charles Douglas Smith with that of Colonel Ready. 21. Where is Point Prim?—How was it settled?

Chapter III:—22. Write a short biography of Joseph Howe.—Describe minutely the political strife which followed his trial for libel. 23. Tell what you remember of Sir Colin Campbell's rule in Nova Scotia. 24. Give an account of the strife between Howe and Lord Falkland 25. What were the Casual and Territorial Revenues, and how did they influence politics in New Brunswick? 26. Sketch the career of Sir John Harvey, as governor, in the Maritime Provinces. 27. Give the chief events associated with the name and rule of Sir William Colebrooke.—How are the names of Wilmot and Fisher associated with the struggle for responsible government? 28. Give a connected account of the struggle between the people of Prince Edward Island and the absent proprietors.—Name the governors of Prince Edward Island from the date of Sir John Harvey's withdrawal till 1864. How did the land question

disturb the peace of the island in 1837. How was responsible government obtained for Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland.

Chapter IV:—29. Give a sketch of the early railway enterprise of the provinces. 30. What was the date of the Reciprocity Treaty:—Enumerate its terms. 31. What do you know of the Mining Association of Nova Scotia? 32. Give an account of the excitement incident on the free-trade discussions in New Brunswick. 33. What was the origin of the Land Commission of Prince Edward Island in 1860, and what did it effect? 34. Describe the rejoicings connected with the Prince of Wales' visit.

Chapter V:—35. Trace the events which led the provinces of Canada to think of Confederation. 36. Who were the leading statesmen present at the Quebec Convention?—How had they gained such a prominent position. 37. Narrate the events which followed 1867, and state how further consolidation of the Dominion took place. 38. What events disturbed Canada during the War of Secession? 39. Describe the Fenian raid. 40. Give an account of the progress of the Maritime Provinces during the third period of their history.

1. Tell all you know of the enterprise of the people, during the First Period of Acadian History. 2. Explain the charter given to De Monts.—Trace the causes which broke up his settlement on the St. Croix. 3. Name five or more of the men who discovered and explored parts of America, and write biographies of any two of them. 4. What was the general character of the constitutional powers granted to the early governors of Acadia, Cape Breton and Newfoundland? 5. Give a detailed account of Louisbourg in its days of prosperity,—its trade, government, as well as the social condition of its people. 6. Write short biographies of Shirley, Nicholson, Monckton, and Wolfe. 7. Name all the more important settlements in New Brunswick previous to 1783, and trace the history of any one of them. 8. What was the origin of the antagonistic feeling, which existed between the permanent settlers on Newfoundland, and the fish merchants?—Compare this with the bitterness which was often seen in the dissensions between the people of Prince Edward Island and the absent proprietors. 9. Name the principal settlements of the Acadians, and distinguish them by their enterprise. 10. Name the three forts of the St. John River, and narrate the history of any one of them. 11. Give the dates of all the treaties between France and England, in which the transfer of Acadian territory was involved:—State their terms. 12. What places were established in the Maritime Provinces by English settlers, after the expulsion of the Acadians? 13. What were the reasons advanced by Shirley and others, in advocating the raising of a force to besiege Louisbourg. 14. Give a short account of the Seven Years War, and the Treaty which brought it to an end. 15. What causes led to the exile of the Loyalists?—How were they saved from destitution? 16. Who were the first members from the County of Cape Breton? What do you know of their election? 17 Draw a map of Sydney harbour and mark on it the exact position of the town.—Give an account of its earliest history. 18. Name four of the most popular, as well as four of the most unpopular governors of the Maritime Provinces, taken respectively.—Write a detailed account of the rule of any two of these, by way of comparison. 19. What were the Casual and Territorial Revenues?—What connection had they with the Civil List Bill? 20. Name the three conventions at which the railway affairs of the Maritime Provinces were discussed. Name also the conventions which had some connection with the question of Confederation. 21. Who were the members of the first Dominion administration? Write a short biography of S. L. Tilley. 22. Give an account of the Local Parliament. 23. What are the industries of the country at the present time?—Sketch the educational progress of the past fifty years. 24. Write out a list of the more distinguished of the Loyalists.—Enumerate six events in the history of each province, giving dates. How would you show by a tabular form, the outlines of the history of the whole country?

LOCAL ADMINISTRATIONS OF THE PRESENT TIME, 1876.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Lieutenant-Governor—Hon. Adams G. Archibald, C. M. G.
Hon. P. C. Hill, D. C. L., Provincial Secretary, (Premier.)
Hon. Stayley Brown, Provincial Treasurer.
Hon. Otto S. Weeks, Attorney-General.
Hon. Robert Robertson, Commissioner of Public Works.
Hon. Alonzo J. White, Commissioner of Crown Lands.
Hon. James Cochran.
Hon. Colin Campbell.
Hon. Daniel Macdonald.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

Lieutenant-Governor—Hon. S. L. Tilley, C. B.
Hon. Robert Young, President of the Council.
Hon. George E. King, Attorney-General, (Premier.)
Hon. John J. Fraser, Provincial Secretary.
Hon. Benjamin R. Stevenson, Surveyor-General.
Hon. William M. Kelly, Commissioner of Public Works.
Hon. Angus McQueen.
Hon. John H. Crawford.
Hon. Edward Willis.
Hon. William E. Perley.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

Lieutenant-Governor—Sir Robert Hodgson.
Hon. Lemuel C. Owen, President of Council.
Hon. T. H. Haviland, Provincial Secretary.
Hon. Frederic De St. Croix Brecken, Attorney-General.
Hon. William W. Sullivan, Solicitor-General.
Hon. John Lefurgy.
Hon. William G. Strong.
Hon. Archibald J. McDonald.
Hon. John Yeo.
Hon. Joseph O. Arsenault.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Governor—Sir John H. Glover, R. N., G. C. M. G.
Hon. F. B. T. Carter, Attorney-General, (Premier.)
Hon. James J. Rogerson, Receiver-General.
Hon. Edward D. Shea, Colonial Secretary.
Hon. W. J. S. Donnelly, Financial Secretary.
Hon. W. V. Whiteway.
Hon. Stephen Rendell.